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ABSTRACT

This social studies curriculum guide is designed for grades K-12. Divided into seven sections, the first section offers a brief introduction and calls attention to the laws and rulings in Indiana which affect the teaching of social studies. Section two outlines the guide's rationale which stresses that knowledge must be combined with rational action in resolving social issues. The elementary section identifies and defines major concepts, indicates where they appear in selected textbooks, lists skills which should be developed, provides a description of the child at each grade level, and offers suggestions for evaluation. Topics include global awareness, decision making, basic needs, citizenship, self-esteem, and technology. Activities involve students in question-answer exercises, map and globe work, role playing, and field trips to local industries. The fourth section consists of flow and concept charts which describe the scope of the social science disciplines; a separate chart is provided for each discipline. The secondary section consists of units used as examples for teaching American history and government, anthropology, economics, geography, seventh grade global studies, world civilizations, psychology, and sociology. Each unit contains introductions, objectives, strategies, activities, and resources. The evaluation section includes the following cognitive values, and social participation domains; test items; and classroom observation techniques. A resource bibliography is included. (Author/JK)

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Social Studies

a guide for curriculum development

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SOCIAL STUDIES: A GUIDE TO CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

CREATED AND DEVELOPED BY:

The Indiana Department of Public Instruction
Harold H. Negley, Superintendent

in cooperation with the:

Indiana Council for the Social Studies
Indiana Council for Economic Education
Indiana Project for Consumer Economic Education

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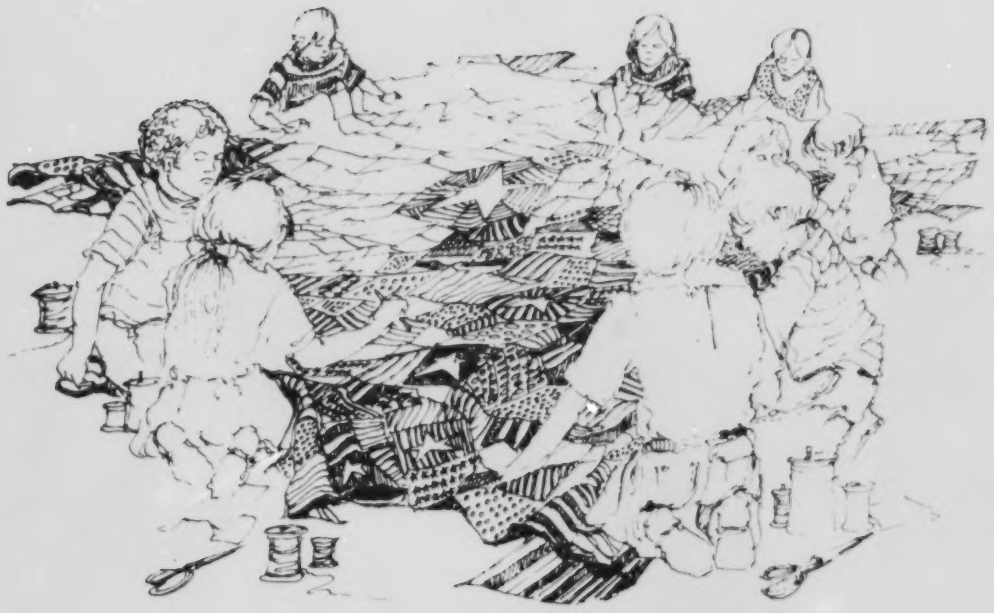


Introduction, Laws and Rulings

Social studies has evolved over the past half century from a factually oriented, expository teacher presentation, into a concepts and skills focus presented in a variety of content unprecedented in our history. This has been due at least in part to the explosion of knowledge, increased communication and ever-evolving awareness of others in our interdependent world. For these reasons, *Social Studies: A Guide for Curriculum Development* has been organized differently from guides developed in the past. It must serve the needs of our students who are preparing for citizenship in tomorrow's world.

This guide is an integrated whole, each section offering important aspects of the K-12 curriculum. It is organized so that teachers may select those components which, in their professional judgment, seem important for their students. The listed concepts are to assist the teacher in identifying fields of study; the objectives presented are examples of what can be done to help students develop their citizenship skills. Curriculum committees should use the guide as a model for developing the detailed courses of study deemed important for students in their community.

The first section calls attention to the laws and rulings in our state which affect the teaching of social studies. All educators, regardless of their role, need to be familiar with the governing forces in our field. Curriculum designs for each school district should be planned with these in mind.

The Rationale defines the field of social studies for the concerned public that education serves. It also provides the foundation on which the entire guide is developed. The *National Council for the Social Studies Curriculum Guide* was of invaluable help in this regard.

The organization of the Elementary Section is described in its introduction. Its use, however, is not just for elementary teachers. Knowledge of the developmental stages of children can be extremely helpful to parents, other teachers and administrators. What students are expected to learn in elementary social studies should form the background for planning the secondary curriculum.

Flow Charts and Concept Charts of the social sciences describe the scope of the disciplines which provide the core of social studies courses. Their importance in developing curriculum programs should not be overlooked.

In the Secondary Section, courses of study, with their numerous titles and variety of themes, proved difficult to categorize. Therefore, with the exception of some rather standard courses, the social science disciplines were used as headings. This is NOT to imply the elimination of any multidisciplinary course offerings identified in the textbook adoption categories. Teachers of multidisciplinary courses such as Values and Issues or Current Problems will utilize components of each of the disciplines in presenting materials to their students.

Obviously then, secondary teachers will want to become familiar with all components of this section. Elementary teachers can gain many ideas for extending their own programs for gifted students. It is also important for them to be cognizant of the preparation students need for future course work.

The public is increasingly demanding proof of student progress. All educators, as well as the public, need to realize the scope of possibilities for assessing student progress. The Evaluation Section describes this scope and provides examples of ways in which teachers can design their own assessment tools. It provides the foundation for developing improved assessment of student achievement. Users of the guide are urged to respond to its evaluation as well.

The Resource Bibliography Section is specifically designed to extend educators' access to further information on pertinent topics. It clearly is not exhaustive but rather suggestive of the vast sources of information available for improving the educational environment. Users of the guide should also search the bibliographies attached to its various sections for further help.

A never-ending effort is needed to develop and maintain a high quality program of social studies for students. We as educators must model lifelong learning if we set it as a goal for students. We present this guide as a beginning.

SOCIAL STUDIES TEXTBOOK ADOPTION: RATIONALE, PROCEDURES AND INTERPRETATION

Indiana is one of several states that adopt textbooks on a statewide basis. Have you ever wondered why? Do you know what the adoption procedures are? Have you ever wondered what textbook adoption means to your teaching in the classroom?

The Commission on Textbook Adoption has seven members; six are appointed by the governor and the seventh is the State Superintendent of Public Instruction, who is an elected official. The commission is required to screen and to adopt up to seven texts for each subject taught in the schools of Indiana every five years. Indiana law requires that schools shall select their classroom texts from the adoption list.

Rationale

But why have textbook adoption on a statewide basis? After all, why do professional teachers need to have the state select for them a list of seven approved texts?

The argument is made that textbook adoption not only encourages but, in fact, requires that the schools examine their curriculum offerings at least every five years. For some teachers and schools the adoption process is a means of renewal, a means of keeping the curriculum and the teacher up-to-date. After all, some schools might never adopt new materials until the old are completely worn out.

One other argument is that the commission can enter into contract with the adopted textbook publishers to supply texts at a specific price for the adoption period of five years. In other words, the commission accepts bids establishing the price of texts. This procedure may have some advantage over each school district attempting to establish price through its own bargaining power.

And finally, the argument is made that the process of adopting texts has in recent years been broadened to require community participation along with, of course, the participation of professional educators and others.

Procedures

The procedures for textbook adoption require the commission "to carefully examine such books as are submitted for approval . . . taking into consideration the amount and quality of material, subject matter, style of binding, mechanical execution and price."

The commission, having solicited recommendations from teachers and others, adopts up to seven texts, the titles of which are sent to the superintendent who is then obligated to set up a review and evaluation committee consisting of at least 40% teachers and 40% parents. This committee will select from among the seven adopted texts those texts which are most appropriate for their schools.

Interpretation

What does all this mean to classroom teachers? It means that every five years they may have the opportunity to reconsider materials they have been using in class.

It means that the local review and evaluation committee is required to purchase materials from the approved adoption list. Though there is an obligation to purchase at each grade level K-12, there is considerable flexibility in choosing from among the texts on the approved adoption list.

It means the committee can recommend that the school system purchase one text for each student in every social studies class that is offered in the school system. For example, all students in the 4th grade in the system would have the same social studies text on Indiana history, and each senior

high school student taking American history would have the same American history text. But, there are other alternatives:

Multi-text Adoption

Suppose teachers from separate schools within the system choose different texts from among the seven approved. The recommendation could be that multi-texts be adopted, meaning that each separate school may make its own choice. So it is conceivable that up to seven different texts could be available in any one school system or in any one school.

Classroom Set

Another alternative for the committee is to recommend the purchase of one classroom set. Suppose there are 150 American history students. They are divided into six sections of roughly 25 each, all sections meeting in the same room. The law requires that the adopted text be available to students. One classroom set would mean the purchase of approximately 25 copies of an approved text plus five extra copies for emergencies. Each section attends class where there is a set of approved materials. There is the obligation to adopt and purchase, but once that obligation is met, the school may purchase any variety of other supplementary social studies materials to meet the needs and interests of its students.

The committee's alternatives are not necessarily restricted to the three mentioned above, for there are opportunities for special programs that may require unusual materials which would normally be outside those on the adoption list.

Why this elaborate plan for adoption and purchase? The rationale is: there is a K-12 suggested social studies curriculum. That curriculum is organized on certain themes and skills with increasing complexity from one grade to the next in the form of an upward spiral. Suppose that in grade levels K-3 the school neither adopts nor purchases any social studies materials, suggesting that it does not intend to follow the recommended social studies curriculum. Though the state suggests that a program exists, by not purchasing the materials the school ignores the suggested program. The state, to counteract the school's reluctance to teach social studies, now requires the purchase of approved materials.

In summary, it is fair to say that the intention of the textbook adoption policy is to provide the teacher with an opportunity to examine a wide variety of teaching materials, provide one means by which the committee can participate in the renewal of the Curriculum, and finally be a means of informing the public on materials used in the schools.

Textbook adoption is a very complex process, and in the short explanation above, there is no intention to cover all the rationale, interpretations and procedures of adoption. The fact is that interpretations and procedures change from time to time, so what may be appropriate for one adoption period may not be appropriate for another. If there are questions on the process and procedures, contact the Social Studies Consultant, Division of Curriculum, State Department of Public Instruction, Indianapolis. Also, during the textbook adoption year the State Department of Public Instruction publishes "Policy Procedures Textbook Adoptions" which gives specific information on textbook adoption.

INDIANA K-12 SOCIAL STUDIES CURRICULUM

There are three specific sources of information on the suggested K-12 curriculum: the Indiana Code which is cited above; the State Curriculum Guide on Social Studies, and the Textbook Adoption Categories Criteria.

The cognitive, psychomotor and affective domains and the developmental growth phases of the student must be considered in planning and teaching the social studies. Meaningfulness is emphasized throughout the K-8 and high school programs in that the child learns about himself at the beginning of his school career and each year following. He learns about his relatedness and responsibility to family, neighborhood, state, region, nation, hemisphere and the world. He gains understanding of his dependence, independence and interdependence within and between social institutions (economic, social, political, religious and educational). And he develops a clearer perception of his present, past and future.

Paramount concerns for a social studies curriculum in Indiana include multi-ethnic studies and the importance of understanding the contributions of all groups of people and their ecological systems, leading to the realization that the peoples of the world are interdependent. Emerging social concerns include career education, law-related education, building of world-mindedness, and a value orientation which emphasizes the valuing process and the understanding of and appreciation for democratic values in a pluralistic nation and world. Current affairs may be taught in addition to the social studies in order to supplement and reinforce the curriculum, or they may be taught as a basis for developing social studies learning.

Suggested K-12 Curriculum

The spiral that begins in kindergarten and continues through high school repeats, deepens and broadens categories as the student progresses. The outline of the suggested social studies K-12 curriculum follows:

Kindergarten — The child and his investigation of himself, his family, home, school, and neighborhood and the accompanying living and working functions of each in which the child learns to work in groups, to use classroom tools, to share materials, to use simple inquiry skills and social participation.

Grade 1 — Individuals, families, schools and social institutions of the neighborhood, ways of living and working together using available resources at home, and in other parts of the world (in other environments); yesterday and today with extension of, or introduction of, cooperative and problem-solving skills.

Grade 2 — Local school neighborhoods, neighborhoods in other countries; how local communities meet common interests and needs of individuals and institutions through human interaction and through services basic to mankind; the introduction of valuing skills and simple map reading skills; the development of skills of responsibility.

Grade 3 — Development of the local community, other communities, states and regions in other parts of the world; ways they adjust to the environments, develop and use technology and human and nutural resources, and adapt from other cultures while extending student interests; knowledge of occupations, values and value systems, map skills, organization, inquiry and other skills.

Grade 4 — State (Indiana), region, nation and world communities influenced by the past; present use of environment, distribution of human and natural resources, use of societal controls, ever-present problems, and the influence of geography on development with extension of research skills, problem-solving and valuing activities.

Grade 5 — The United States, Canada and regions of the world; the growth and development of nations and regions of the world as influenced by geography, history, physical and cultural environments, and the roles and relationships which develop and exist among them while comparative study, problem-solving, and awareness of how to affect change as an individual are emphasized.

Grade 6 — Western Europe, Latin America and other regions of the world with comparative studies on the growth and development of nations and regions of the world, influenced by geography, history, physical and cultural environments and the roles and relationships which develop and exist among them; also stressing pupil-teacher planning and decision-making.

Grade 7 — Area studies of World Civilization (supplanting the non-West title) including the Middle East, Asia and Africa.

Grade 8 — United States history (including instruction in the Constitutions of Indiana and the United States of America).

Grade 9 —
Grade 10
Grade 11
Grade 12

Course offerings of 9-12 are allowable at any level but must provide: United States History (2 semesters required); United States Government (2 semesters required or 1 semester of U.S. government or civil government and 1 semester of an acceptable citizenship course). The classes must deal with the historical, political, civic, sociological, economic and philosophical aspects of the Constitutions of Indiana and of the United States. In addition to the required courses, each commissioned high school shall include in the curriculum: ancient, medieval or modern history and economic or physical geography. Courses approved for the foregoing additional elective offerings and for other electives are: African Studies, Early World Civilizations, Psychology, Sociology, Urban Affairs, Western Civilization, Anthropology, Asian Studies, Economics, Ethnic Studies (U.S.), Latin America, Area Studies, Modern World Civilization, World Civilization, World Geography, Current Problems, Introduction to Social Science, and Values and Issues. A multi-disciplinary elective will soon be available. It will be comprised of a course in each of the following: humanities, environment and consumer economics. Political Science, a Major social science discipline, will add new dimensions in studying about the law and political action. Consumer economics studies will be required and can then be combined with either the humanities or the environmental studies.

Electives in the social studies must be offered in the high school curriculum during each semester when required courses are not offered; however, the elective offerings chosen must be those which best meet the needs of a given school area or program. For application of these courses, the *Administrative Handbook of Policy and Procedures* and state laws should be consulted.

Schools using a series of *state approved* social studies textbooks (1-8) may follow the sequence of outline in those textbooks rather than the outline as stated in these curriculum guidelines for grades 1-8.

Summary

It is apparent that the social studies curriculum in Indiana has clear purposes and design as well as great flexibility. The goal of the Indiana Social Studies program is to develop through its K-12 curriculum an individual who has self-awareness, knowledge and a sense of responsibility as a citizen in the family, school, neighborhood, community, state, region, nation hemisphere and the world.

Notes

1. *1973 Indiana Textbook Adoption Categories for Social Studies,* State Department of Education, Indianapolis, Indiana, 1973.

2. *Ibid.*, p. 4.

Rationale

Introduction to Rationale

The rationale that begins this curriculum guide is provided, not for the sake of appearances, but as an important statement about what social studies teachers hold to be true concerning the nature of their field. The rationale begins with a preamble and contains three distinct sections, "The Domain of Knowledge,""The Domain of Values," and "The Domain of Social Participation." These sections are divided into subtopics designed for further clarification and explicit, clear organization. Illustrations explain some of the abstractions used. On the whole, this rationale attempts to illuminate, although incompletely, the assumptions that teachers use daily to explain and justify their choices of direction and purpose, content and teaching strategies.

The purposes of social studies education are enhancement of human dignity through learning and commitment to a rational process as the means of attaining this end. Although these purposes are shared with other curricular areas, they compose the core of social studies education.

If knowledge without action is empty and useless, action without knowledge is blind. Those who seek to resolve social issues without the requisite understanding are likely to behave irresponsibly, to damage their own future and endanger human life. Therefore, knowledge and reason, commitment to human dignity and worth, and the entire domain of social action are to be regarded as inseparably related.

The function of human knowledge, whatever its source, is to provide a reservoir of data, ideas, concepts, generalizations and theories which, combined with thinking, valuing and social participation, can be used to function rationally and humanely.

Although social studies teachers may legitimately differ with respect to what ought to be considered appropriate social studies knowledge, and although teachers may not agree as to what is desirable public policy, there is nevertheless an important core of shared beliefs. Knowledge in the social studies goes well beyond fragmented and isolated facts and includes wider generalizations and constructs. Knowledge in the social studies, it is agreed, derives largely but not exclusively from the data, processes and theories of the social sciences. Other disciplines and the areas of art, music and literature also provide both knowledge and value models worthy of consideration. Social studies as an academic area is believed to be most fruitful when students can relate classroom data to their goals and concerns.

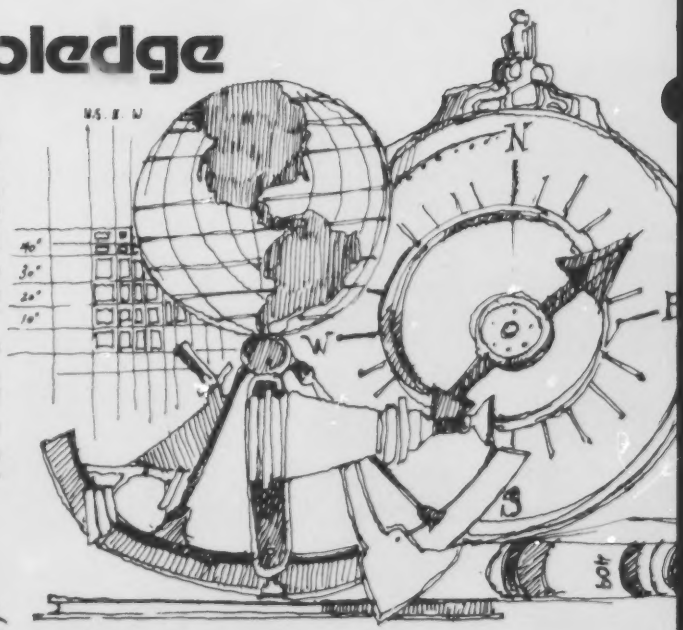
It also is clear that the conflict inevitably arising in a democratic society must be dealt with by creative problem-solving approaches. The changes and dislocation created by technology's rapid

growth and by social pluralism puts a premium on the clarification process. Citizens of our democracy need to distinguish their often unclear roles as voters, consumers, parents and workers. Individuals need to gain insight into the social system which affects them in ways that are subtle, complex and far removed from immediate experience.

The knowledge that applies to this clarification process is not information that is disconnected and meant for display; it is rather knowledge to be used in the solution of problems concerning students and society. It is knowledge useful in understanding the real world. It is essential that teachers emphasize the provisional and tentative quality of all knowledge. It also is necessary that knowledge be seen as subject to the test of time, experience and continuing discovery.

Implementing such knowledge requires a number of curriculum guidelines. A process of inquiry ought to begin in kindergarten and continue throughout a 12-year curriculum. This curriculum should be centered around problems which are social in scope and which motivate and arouse individual interest. It should emphasize the various tools of analysis, as problem sensing and framing, hypothesis testing, data-gathering and evaluation. Such a curriculum is necessarily based upon an assumption of diversity. There are many approaches, techniques, models and strategies that will accomplish a given end. But all methodology should presuppose students who are actively motivated by a sense of purpose.

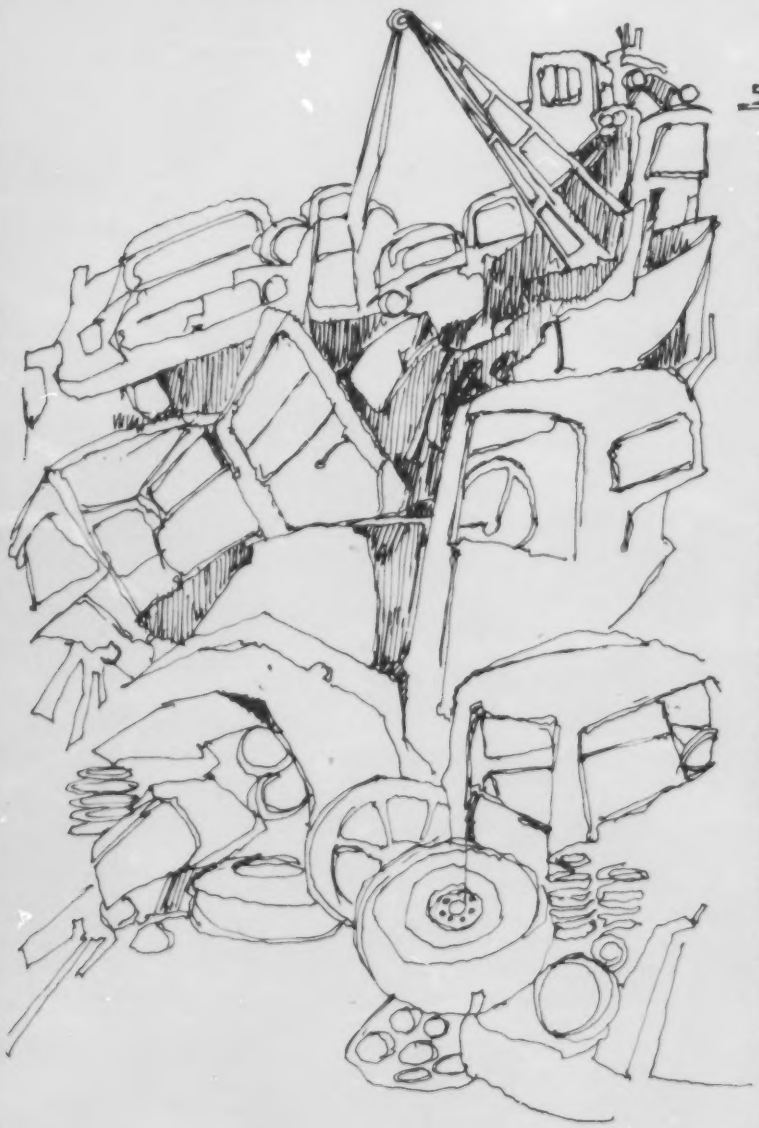
Domain of Knowledge



The Purpose of Knowing

There are two aspects of knowing: the capacity to acquire inductively a stock of empirical knowledge; the ability to apply knowledge, to make valid deductions. The end product of such a knowing process should be adults who have an ample and dependable stock of important generalizations, who are able to identify specific social phenomena as instances of larger generalizations.

Dependable knowing enables individuals to make judgments about the world of which they are a part. Individuals should possess a stock of knowledge and a capacity to use knowledge to enable them to accommodate and cope with a society that is increasingly more complex. In order to reduce insoluble conflict, in order to create more harmonious relations, in order to make decisions which are fruitful, students should possess certain knowledge skills. The assumption, then, is that democracy requires choice, and that education ought to be designed to enable its citizens to live in a democracy. The conclusion is that those who live in a democracy must participate in policy decisions by making rational choices.



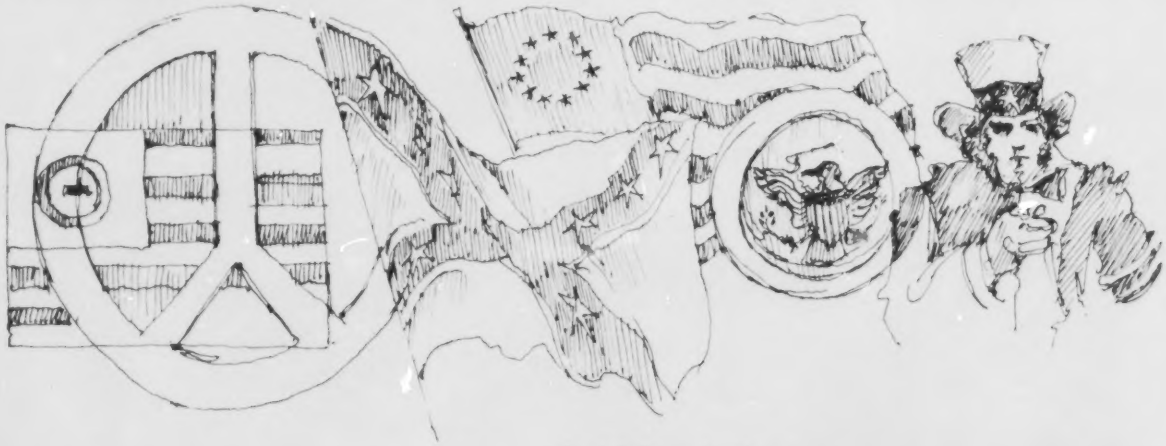
Man-Land Relationships

The social studies curriculum ought to be organized to conform with the assumptions made about the nature of social studies, knowledge, the nature of society and the theory of learning described in the preamble.

Certain concepts would seem to develop students' basic understanding. One of these concepts relates to the physical structure of the world and the social structures that people have evolved over many thousands of years. Students should learn that the planet earth is not infinite in its resources and that people must find ways of devising an equitable means of intelligently using, sharing and conserving the finite resources that are available. This implies knowledge of production, consumption and distribution of goods and services which belongs to the discipline of economics. Students should learn that human life has been influenced by the physical structure of the planet. They should learn that while mankind is one, that human beings belong to the same family, cultural differences are almost infinite. The complex interactions between human beings and the physical environment — known as the man-land relationship — are a significant area for study in social studies.

Man as a Unique Biological Species

Students should gain insight into mankind as a species of life, as a unique biological phenomenon. Although sharing certain traits with all other sensate life, man is unique, for only human beings employ symbols and language, devise elaborate and variable social structures and utilize refined tools. Man is unique also in that his spiritual endowments transcend his biological limitations. Human nature and human history and prehistory on this planet are of special interest to the discipline of anthropology and especially appropriate for student investigation.



Social Organization

Students should identify the variety of ways in which mankind has organized itself into societies. The insights of history and political science can enable students to see that nation-states came into being for specific and identifiable reasons. It is important that students perceive the relationship between the United States and all other nations so that the interdependence of nations is equally specific and identifiable. While people have always cooperated in order to survive, it is equally true that wars, aggression, nationalistic rivalry and other forms of conflict have imperiled survival. Students need to develop a long-term view of themselves, their country and the organization of nations.

What Knowledge is Most Useful?

Equal in importance to the question, "What should be known?" is the question, "How should one know?" We believe that social studies curriculum should develop the capacity of students to make judgments that are both empirically grounded and logically valid. This presupposes that students indeed possess the capacity to become analytic, that is, to substitute reasoned judgment for unexamined, intuitive belief.

But to substitute reasoned judgment for uncritical acceptance of folklore, mythology, superstition and propaganda requires skill and confidence in the process of social scientific inquiry. Students should develop insight into the process by which different social science disciplines identify problems, hypothesize, gather and analyze data and reach warranted although provisional conclusions.

Decision-Making

Such terms as "choice" and "policy" need to be related to the knowledge skills we have mentioned. What are these knowledge skills? They include the ability to compare and contrast phenomena, which presupposes the ability to identify and analyze differences. But the phenomena to be compared must be seen in a larger global framework rather than a limited ethnocentric one. This suggests the necessity of a curriculum that is rich in a study of comparative government, laws, economic structures, beliefs, customs, traditions and values.

Similarly, rather than a perfunctory coverage of the structure and function of government, students should identify the process by which decisions are made in a pluralistic society. Specifically, students should be able to identify the meanings of the terms "decision," "choice" and "selection." They should be able to analyze the many and complex forces that come into play when decisions are made. They should be able to relate a given decision to both its antecedents and its consequences. It is not enough for students to be acquainted briefly with the concept "pressure group." Rather, students should see that in our democracy, composed as it is of contending groups, all groups are motivated by what is considered to be in their self-interest. The process of accommodation and compromise — known colloquially but accurately as "give and take" — involves "trade offs," that is, weighing values and deciding for what one is ultimately willing to settle. This is a complex and subtle process. Twelve years is barely adequate for students to learn how democratic decision-making functions.

Current Affairs

To learn decision-making requires more than ritualized and sporadic "current events." Rather, current history ought to be an organic part of the social studies curriculum. A given event ought not to be simply mentioned or located on a map. Rather, present issues should be used as the basis for developing intelligent, critical judgment. Events should be seen in a pattern rather than in isolation. In short, current affairs are not simply contemporary happenings. The present should be linked with the past, with the student's world of meaning, and, ultimately, with an attempt to anticipate the future.

America and World Interdependence

Singled out for special emphasis at this time is an interdisciplinary study of American culture and life known as American Studies. This approach concentrates on the interrelationships of American politics, history, art, economics, music, literature and social structure. The purpose of this approach is to develop an understanding and commitment to democratic values and procedures. But this understanding should take place within the context of a treatment of other cultures, societies and nations, for the reality is the growing interdependence between the United States and all other nations.

Domain of Values

"Value" is simply a word for "what ought to be" or "what people prize." Differences about "what ought to be" underlie all of our contemporary social problems — poverty, generational change, war, pollution, racial and religious conflict, to mention but a few. However, because the related values are both so subtle and controversial, it is a challenge for teachers to know how to handle value-laden issues. Teachers must succeed at the heroic task, on the one hand, of avoiding the uncritical transmission of values, and on the other, of themselves standing for a set of values which are strong and enduring.

Examination of Value Conflict

Social studies teachers should approach value issues without hesitation. It should be recognized that the most distinguishing characteristic of our society is the presence of a wide range of beliefs, values and attitudes which are often in conflict. Rather than let those conficts take care of themselves, schools should provide systematic support in helping students examine the values which underlie all social problems. Students ought therefore to be assisted in inquiring into differences between themselves and others in order to clarify their own beliefs and feelings. Students ought to be helped to formulate belief systems which constitute

a consistent, harmonious set of values. The end result will be not only an improved self-concept but increased openness and sensitivity to others.

Adults as Models

Schools as well as social studies teachers are charged with an important function as role models. It seems clear that the young learn values, in part, from observation of adult models whom they admire. If schools wish to teach values associated with a democracy, the institutions and those in the institutions must exhibit such values. Included by most among democratic values are respect for individual worth and dignity, fair play, appreciation for justice and free speech and a high regard for open and responsible decision-making. Those values which school personnel verbally endorse must also be practiced consistently within classrooms, auditoriums, playgrounds and hallways — by both teachers and students. There ought to be consistency between how students are expected to behave and the everyday conduct of teachers, administrators and other school personnel.

Indoctrination

The learning of values should be gained rationally — through a conscious introduction to the valuing process. This implies that indoctrination is logically antithetical to a rational exploration of values. Indoctrination, conscious or unconscious inculcation wherein the young are persuaded to accept a set of values uncritically, is not in the best interests of a democracy. In a pluralistic society such as ours, there are many diverse beliefs and values. Where differences exist about "what ought to be," schools cannot in good conscience assume that only one position is acceptable and only one should be taught.

This is not at all to suggest that schools can or should be "value free" or neutral, for teachers must of necessity stand for something. But, it is one thing for students to reach commitment to democratic values through open analysis and quite another for them to be manipulated and persuaded. Hence, in order for schools to produce students who have an enlightened understanding of values and a commitment to a set of values, it is in their and society's best interest to promote the skills of valuing, i.e., rational and humane examination of what is and what ought to be.

Classroom Atmosphere for Value Examination

Ideally, the classroom atmosphere in which such examination should take place is one with a tolerant, supportive and open teacher who encourages students to examine both their values and the process by which value commitments were reached. Free of the threat of teacher sanctions and protected from the hostility of others, a student should feel comfortable in confronting his values, beliefs and attitudes, those of other students and those to be found in the larger society.

Values

The distinction between the domains of knowledge and values is only for the purpose of analysis. In reality, the two are inseparably related. Both deal with the overreaching goal of the social studies: developing within students the capacity to make rational, analytic, explicit and humane normative judgments and evaluations.

Rationality and Autonomy

What does this abstraction mean? To be "rational" and "autonomous" implies that an individual is relatively free psychologically to hold attitudes independent of personality, needs and group norms. In essence, a person is not a slave either to unexamined group norms and prescriptions or to unconscious feelings of insecurity and anxiety. It is the social studies classroom in which young people may be systematically introduced to the process by which values are internalized. It is there that students become aware of subtle and unrecognized influences — those which come from external pressures to conform and those which arise from within.

Analysis

To be analytical and to make analytical evaluations means that in the act of perception, one separates, identifies and isolates related elements and also is able to see the related elements in their totality. Specifically, students should be exposed to disagreements involving norms, values and beliefs. They should be able to analyze those disagreements in a variety of ways. Students should be aware of the influence of words and concepts: that is, they should be able to operate at the semantic level. Students should be acquainted with the rich variety of research data about the influence of perception on value formation. They should also be aware of the influence of reference groups, i.e., groups which affect and are affected by one's values, those which function to help one gain an identity.

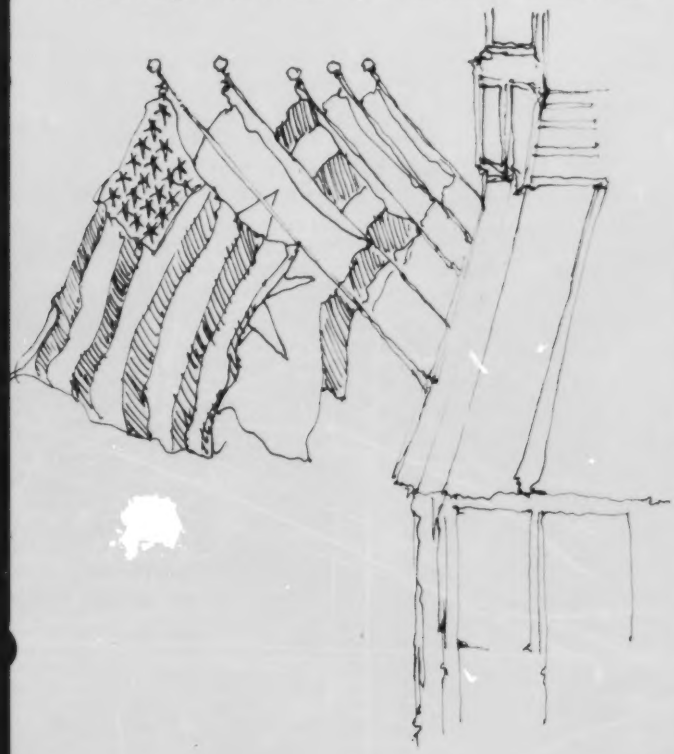
Conscious Valuing

Since values are learned in an unconscious fashion — a child is not aware that he is learning a specific value — it becomes important for social studies classes to help students articulate their values consciously. Valuing should be at the explicit rather than the implicit level. Students should know *that* they are entertaining a given value and should also know the *content* of that value. That is, they should know what the value means, its derivation and its consequences.

Criteria

Of critical importance in the process of becoming explicit is the need for criteria. Students should be able to articulate values in terms of criteria by which they believe a given phenomenon should be judged. Students should be asked repeatedly why they have made a judgment, what supports that judgment and what are the objective grounds for making that judgment.

In effect, students are asked to put in operation what is ordinarily a private and personal matter, for it is not sufficient for someone to say, "I feel this way because I feel this way." The questions ought to be, "What does it mean to have this feeling?", "What specifically are the consequences in behavior that might arise from this judgment?", "If one believes that such and such ought to be, what does this mean in concrete terms?" In order to render value judgments in this explicit and responsible manner, there is need for factual data, information and ideas. There ought to be a constant back-and-forth dialogue between the realm of knowledge, fact, data and information and the world of feeling, belief, value and choice. To hold a preference intelligently means that one can muster support from the real world, that a choice is always defended in terms of adequate supporting evidence.



Complexity

Although such teaching is inherently more complex and requires more developed and sensitive teaching skills, the truth is that classroom complexity only mirrors complexity of the real world. Mature adults are aware of this for they ordinarily avoid simplistic judgments. It is sensitivity to ethical and moral complexity which is a legitimate objective of the social studies curriculum, and the term used to describe this is "empathy." Empathy is the ability to think and feel with another, to share and understand each other's feelings. It is based upon the assumption that others have a legitimate right to see the world as they do. Such an assumption in turn is based upon acceptance of diversity — diversity of creed, perception, value, belief, religion and philosophy. Although students cannot realistically be expected to live in another culture, it is possible to bring other cultures into the classroom. Media and technology allow teachers to bring European, African, Asian, Latin American, Soviet, Arab and preliterate societies — at least in microcosmic form — into the classroom.

Interdependence

As we have come to learn, this country cannot isolate itself between two oceans, independent of the social, economic and political currents of the rest of the world. The present reality is a web of interdependence. How this society depends upon the rest of the world and how the world depends on us should be of interest to teachers who wish to prepare students for an expanded role in the world community.

The Implications of Technology

Social studies should come to grips with technological change. Although such change has long been recognized as a fact of life, the implications of it have not, for it has not been widely recognized that all technological innovations alter human relationships and subtly change social values. To prepare students to live with change implies neither an uncritical acceptance of the new nor rigid clinging to past belief and custom. Responsibility in this area suggests rather that citizens are able to appraise events critically and decide what needs changing and what needs conserving.

Domain of Social Participation

In the social studies context, social participation implies active involvement in responsible, rational decision-making. Social participation is the testing ground which provides ultimate evidence that a student has acquired the knowledge, skills and valuing processes which are assumed to be important in a political democracy. It is the quality of a person's decision in the crucible of action which demonstrates whether one has indeed learned the social skills prized by a self-governing people.

Skills

Like the domains of knowledge and values, that of social participation also requires certain skills. These skills can be identified and can be taught in schools, but the ultimate setting in which persons utilize these skills cannot be determined in advance. The setting depends upon an individual's value commitment and on the state of existing knowledge.

Social participation skills include empathetic listening, role-taking, bargaining, compromising and effective organizing. Also included are those skills needed for group processes which are normally found in our society. All social participation skills should be practiced in the community and in the schools which are a part of the community.

The Objective of Social Participation Skills

The social arena in which the application of knowledge, thinking and commitment must take place is, of necessity, immense. Also extensive is the range of social participation activities which includes observation, information-gathering, attendance at meetings, interviewing, campaigning, community service and responsible demonstration. All of these activities are interactive and nourish and sustain each other.

What is the end to which these activities and these skills are important means? It is to help students become effective as social actors in settings of their own choice and in the many groups which characterize our society.

Stated negatively, training in social participation is designed to avoid such destructive behavior as cynicism, apathy, anomie, feelings of futility and ultimately, disassociation from society. Phrased positively, the goal of social participation is to assist an individual to realize social objectives consistent with his value structure. The assumption is that we cannot specify here which social goals are desirable. Change and variety, as have already been emphasized, are the facts of our national existence. Further, it is assumed that only through group action can many — if not most — goals be realized.

The Ground Rules

Social participation skills should not be taught in a moral vacuum. Our society has evolved norms of social participation, and these norms are considered to function as the framework in which skills and activities take place. It is assumed that peaceful conflict resolution is almost always preferable to violence. It is assumed that social participation ought to take place within the laws, rules and regulations of our society. It is assumed that the unique concept known as "fair play" regulates our behavior. Political opponents are not "enemies" whose destruction merits the use of any means available. Finally, it is assumed that, even within the turmoil and conflict that have always marked our society, the ends do not justify the means. In a democracy, all we have is means.

Knowledge and Social Participation

Considering the social framework and ground rules just enumerated, effective social participation requires a high order of abstract conceptual knowledge. Much of this knowledge is recent and exists because of the labor of social scientists.

Some significant generalizations arising out of social science research follow in much abbreviated form.

To operate effectively in the realm of social participation requires that one know something about the origins of our important social institutions. One must know — as de Tocqueville observed almost 150 years ago — that our society is characterized by groups which constantly form, reform, combine and oppose each other on the basis of given issues. One must know the characteristics, goals, techniques and operations of many different types of groups, e.g., political parties, special interest groups, economic entities, labor organiza-

tions, political action groups. It is not enough to study "pressure groups" and lobbying in one social studies class. Rather, students must recognize that seeking favorable legislation, opposing unfavorable laws, mobilizing public sentiment and propagandizing on behalf of a particular aim is normative activity of all groups which project political goals. The need for the "factions" that the authors of *The Federalist Papers* both feared and respected in the 18th century is as much a fact of life now as it was in 1789. Thus, factions, cliques, parties, groups and organizations are an inescapable part of our society. What is required is neither avoidance nor uncritical loyalty but rather the knowledge of operations, strengths and liabilities of all groups and all group actions.

Students should understand the nature and requirements of group membership. Group membership requires loyalty and support. Membership in different groups often produces conflicting loyalties. In order to resolve conflict in loyalty and belief, it is important that students learn the techniques of deciding what is in their own best self-interest. The alternative to this is to be rent by conflict and guilt and ultimately to be paralyzed by inaction; or worse, to fall prey to anomie, cynicism and despair. Children, and especially adolescents, should be sensitized to the reality of peer group pressure, for unthinking group conformity is in no one's best interest.

In addition to abstract knowledge about groups, one must also possess skills in the day-to-day operations of groups. This is known familiarly as "group dynamics." Students need to know the specific mechanics and behaviors typical of people in groups, i.e., how people assert demands, bargain and compromise. Related to knowledge of the valuing process — described in "The Domain of Values" on pages B-7 through B-10 — students are to become acquainted with value conflict and with a rational approach to conflict resolution.

Another area, an important component of group participation skills, is concerned with interpersonal relations. Students need to learn techniques of listening, e.g., being aware of other frames of reference, knowing how to grasp what is intended, being able to draw implications and identify assumptions. Objectivity — the capacity to formulate rationally and logically the strengths and weaknesses of different positions — is another critical listening skill.

The discipline of social psychology has shed much light on group behavior. Social studies teachers should acquaint themselves with findings concerning goal formulation and the difference between conceived and operational values — i.e., the difference between stated, verbalized goals and those which are actually practiced. From the disciplines of social psychology, anthropology and sociology have come important data on the role of expectations in shaping behavior and on the techniques of persuasion. Finally, teachers should be aware of what psychologists have observed in the last century on the role of motivation in predicting levels of effort.

Guidelines of Social Participation

Teaching strategies implied by the considerations in the previous section are so numerous that it is possible only to sketch a few guidelines. The first and most important is that students learn group participation through practice. Students must be given an opportunity to practice and to participate in groups both within and out of schools, in customary school clubs, societies and groups and in community organizations. Opportunity for students to reflect upon and analyze group processes, however, can best occur in a social studies classroom. Thus, in addition to such techniques as simulations, games, improvised drama and role-playing, students should apply their knowledge to an analysis of observed behavior. These techniques will be dealt with later, in an appropriately marked section.

Conclusion

The purpose of this rationale has been to focus sharply on what seems to be a consensus among Indiana social studies teachers. It also incorporates suggestions by the National Council for the Social Studies. It was treated, discussed and rewritten by teachers and social studies educators from public schools and universities in Indiana. It represents the thinking of those who have devoted their lives to improving the teaching of social studies.

To be maximally useful, it is suggested that social studies teachers use ideas in this rationale for the purposes of discussion and analysis. It also should be used as a jumping-off point for teachers and their colleagues to discuss the most important questions about their profession. How do you as an educator react as you read these questions?

What do you believe about learners and the way they learn?

What is there about a democracy which shapes and guides education in public schools?

What is the best way to utilize social studies knowledge?

How can teachers most effectively relate what people *know* and the way they *feel*?

How can you teach your students the most effective ways of *acting*?

How can teachers maintain a classroom that is constantly alive with students who want to satisfy their curiosity about how and why people behave as they do?

Elementary

Introduction

Social studies taught at the elementary school level may be the key to a child's becoming an active, knowledgeable participant in society. Many attitudes and beliefs about oneself and others are formed in these early years. The way in which children view themselves in relationship to people of differing values and cultural characteristics influences their attitudes toward those people. It may make the difference between an individual who is open-minded to the ideas of others and concerned about other people and one who is not. Acquiring skills necessary to solve problems and to clarify value positions is crucial to the success of an elementary school social studies program.

The elementary section of this curriculum guide is designed to be of practical use to teachers. First, major concepts which should be introduced are identified and defined. Next, those that are introduced most frequently in adopted texts are cross-referenced so that teachers may readily locate them in the texts they are using.

Finally, the skills that should be developed during the elementary years are listed. Since children's abilities vary within each grade level, no specific level has been assigned to each skill. The teacher must determine when the children are ready to acquire a particular skill.

A description of the developmental stage of children is indicated as an important component to be considered when developing a curriculum. Each teacher can decide how his or her children fit into this framework. The program for the grade level identifies typical topics that should be pursued and the skills that may be developed at this level. These are not intended to be all-inclusive.

Following the descriptions are examples of teaching activities designed to introduce the concepts and skills that have been outlined previously. The indication that a concept has been introduced does not mean it has been thoroughly understood by the child; therefore, the same concept is introduced later in the program but in a different context.

At the end of each grade level an evaluation is described. This does not mean that the evaluation technique should be used exclusively at that grade level. However, most of the suggested techniques are incorporated by the sixth grade.

Adaptation — Adjustment or development of physical structure or behavior patterns in response to natural or cultural environment.

Areal Association — The way in which space and distance influence people and their adaptation to their environment.

Attitudes — Patterns of thinking that influence the way people react to their natural or cultural environment. Attitudes may be based on emotions or on reason or both.

Authority — The right to determine or otherwise settle issues or disputes; to control, command or rule.

Basic Needs — What is important for survival; food, clothing, shelter.

Behavior [economic] — Patterns of response resulting from people's attempts to satisfy their needs and wants.

Behavior [innate] — Patterns of response resulting from factors built into people from birth.

Behavior [learned] — Patterns of response resulting from experiences and information acquired after birth.

Behavior [political] — Patterns of response resulting from people's attempts to establish systems of rules and authority.

Behavior [social] — Patterns of response resulting from the interaction of people in group situations.

Beliefs — An acceptance of the truth of something without positive proof.

Capital — Goods and tools used in creating products or services.

Change [cultural] — Basic alterations in a society's general attitudes or ways of life.

Change [social] — Alterations in people's day-to-day patterns of living in groups or communities.

Citizenship — Membership in a nation, with attendant rights and responsibilities.

Civilization — The total culture or social organization of a specific group of people.

Climate — The prevailing weather conditions of a region over a period of years.

Communication — Exchange of ideas and information between two or more parties.

Community — A social group of any size, whose members live in the same place, and who share government, cultural or historical heritage.

Competition — Contests between two or more parties to obtain an advantage or goal.

Compromise — A settlement of differences by mutual concessions; an adjustment of conflicting claims, principals, etc.

Conflict — Opposition of individuals and groups, or opposition of emotions within an individual.

Consumption — The use of products or services to satisfy needs or wants.

Cooperation — Activity shared for mutual benefit.

Culture — The learned behavior of a group of people.

Custom — Usual and accepted behavior or practice among a group of people.

Decision-Making — The process leading up to the act of deciding an issue.

Demand [economic] — 1. The desire to purchase and possess coupled with the power of purchasing. 2. The quantity of any goods which buyers will take at a particular price.

Democracy — A system of government in which the people rule.

Division of Labor — The separation of production into various jobs performed by different workers, permitting specialization and the development and use of higher and more productive human skill.

Ecology — The total pattern of relationships between living things and their environment.

Economic Distribution — The means of allocating goods and services for consumption.

Emotions — The feelings and attitudes of people.

Environment — All the conditions and events that surround and influence living things.

Ethics and Aesthetics — The decisions within a group about right and wrong and what is good and beautiful.

Ethnic Origins — The background handed down through customs, traits and traditions among groups of people.

Exchange — Trade (buying, selling or bartering).

Family — A group consisting of one or more adults and one or more children, the adults being responsible for the maintenance and care of the children.

Freedom — Absence of compulsion in making a choice or in acting.

Goods — Material things used to satisfy needs and wants.

Government — An established system of rules and authority.

Group — A number of people who interact, communicate and share common interests and goals.

Heredity — Unlearned characteristics passed from parents to children, i.e., physical traits, innate ability.

History — Information about what has or might have happened.

Identity — Awareness of one's own values, attitudes, and capabilities; self-knowledge, individuality.

Income — Money and other earnings received by an individual, a company or a country.

Individuality — The sum of a person's characteristics and qualities.

Industrialization — Introduction of a system of production based on large-scale use of nonmanually-powered machinery; the accompanying, economic, social and cultural change.

Institutions [economic] — Structured or organized patterns of behavior followed in meeting human wants or needs.

Institutions [political] — Structured or organized patterns of behavior followed in establishing rules and authority.

Institutions [social] — Structured or organized patterns of behavior arising from human interaction in groups.

Interaction — Communication, conflict or cooperation between individuals or groups.

Interdependence — Reliance upon the exchange of goods and services among nations or among several members of a group.

Justice — The ideal of fair treatment for all.

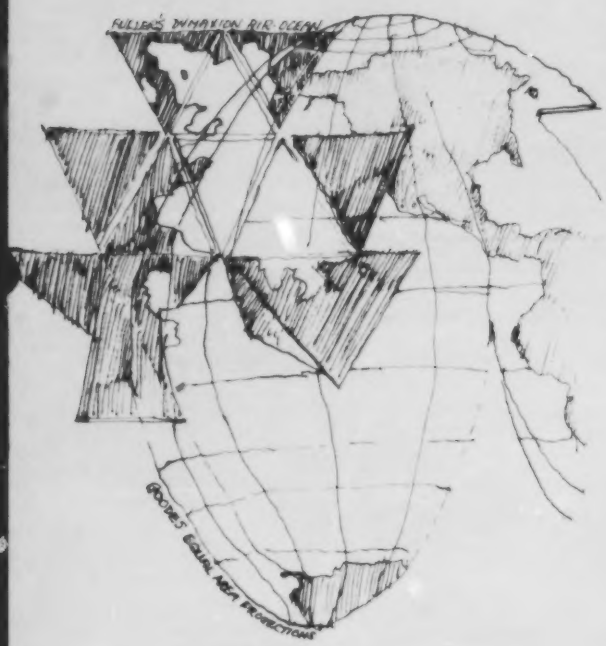
Labor — Work or all wage-earning workers as a group.

Land — The portion of the earth's crust that is not covered by oceans or other bodies of water.

Law — The formal set of rules that a group agrees upon and establishes as a code of behavior.

Leadership — Direction of a group of people in the achievement of a purpose.

Location — The position of an individual or a place.



Maps and Globes — Representations of reality; the earth, universe or parts of them. Can be used to locate peoples, places, land forms and other features.

Motivation — That which inspires or impels someone to do something.

Norms — Standards of behavior.

Organization — A group of people committed to accomplishing some goal or work.

Perception — Use of the senses and intelligence to observe and interpret the environment.

Population — The number of people living in a given area.

Priority — Precedence in order of importance.

Production — Making goods or providing services.

Progress — Change toward or away from a desired goal or purpose.

Race — Large groups of people having clearly distinguishable features that differentiate them from other groups of people.

Region [geographical] — A part of the world that has at least one feature common throughout the area.

Resources [human] — People and the skills they have acquired.

Resources [natural] — Things in nature for which man has found a use.

Responsibilities — Obligations accompanying membership in a group.

Rights — Prerogatives to which a person is entitled.

Role — The part played by someone in a particular event; patterns of behavior adopted by individuals in carrying out specialized functions of a group.

Rule — A guideline for behavior.

Sanctions — Support given to an action or rule of conduct.

Scarcity — A limited supply.

Self-Esteem — The respect one has for oneself.

Services — Work performed to satisfy needs and wants.

Social Discrimination — Assessment of people on the basis of broad generalizations rather than on individual merit.

Socialization — The process by which social attitudes and roles are taught and learned.

Society — A group of people having some common interests, beliefs and attitudes.

Specialization — The development of a variety of jobs or roles, each designed to meet specific wants or needs of a community.

Supply — The quantity of a commodity, etc., that is on the market and available for purchase, or that is available for purchase at a particular price.

Technology — The system through which people supply their needs and wants.

Traditions — Handing down of beliefs, legends, customs from generation to generation.

Values — Principles, standards and preferences that determine behavior.

Wants — What is desired by people over and above the basic needs of food, clothing and shelter for survival.

TEXTBOOK PUBLISHERS

Grades K through 7

The following chart indicates concepts textbook publishers approved by the Indiana Textbook Adoption Commission have emphasized. The concepts are identified at the grade level where they appear in the publishers' materials.

Concepts	SRA	Silver Burdett	Macmillan	Harcourt	Follett	Field	ABC
Adaptation	6	K12 56	1 3 56	K123456	123456	123456	3456
Areal Association	23 6	1 6	1 45	3456	123456		456
Attitudes	1234	12 6	1 3 56	K 3 56	123456	1 456	56
Authority	2 56	12 4 6	1234 6	123 5		1 3456	456
Basic Needs	123456	K123456	23456	K12 456		123456	12 45
Behavior (economic)	123456	2 456	3456	K12 456	123456	45	456
Behavior (innate)	123 56	K 456	1 56	K 2 45	123456		45
Behavior (learned)	123456	K12 456	1 3 56	K12 45	123456		4
Behavior (political)	23456	2 56	2 56	56	123456		56
Behavior (social)	123456	K12 456	1 3 56	K123456	123456		4 6
Beliefs	123456	12 56	123 56	K123 5			4 6
Capital	1234	23	456	56	123456		5
Change (cultural)	12 456	K123456	3456	1 3456	123456	123456	456
Change (social)	12 456	K12 456	3456	3456	123456	123456	23456
Citizenship	3 6	12 5	2 56	3 56	123456		4 6
Civilization	3 6		3 56	3456	3		6
Climate	234 6	K123 5	1 3 56	1 3 56	123456	2	3456
Communication	23456	K12 56	456	K12345	123456	123456	3456
Community	234	123456	23456	34			1 4 6
Competition	23			56	123456		345
Compromise	23456	4		23456			4
Conflict	123456	1 6	5	1 34 6	123456	1 3456	345
Consumption	123	2 6	345	1 34 6	123456	1 3456	6
Cooperation	1234 6	1 34	1 456	K1 34 6		123456	345
Culture	34 6	K1 345	1 3456	K1 3456	123456	123456	1 3456
Custom	2345	K1 3 5	3 56	K1 3456	123456	123456	4 6
Decision-Making	1234 6	12 4 6	1234 6	K1 3456	123456		6
Demand (economic)	23456	345	3456	2 56		12	45
Democracy	23 56	12 5	2 56	56	123456		56
Division of Labor	123456	1 345	3456	2 56		12 456	5
Ecology	234 6	K1 3 56	3 56	K12345	123456	123 5	3
Economic Distribution	123456	3 56	23456	1 3 5	123456	123456	
Emotions	1 3	4		K1234	123456	123456	
Environment	123456	K1234 6	3456	K12345	123456	123456	3456
Ethics and Aesthetics	2 456	K12 6	345	3456		456	6
Ethnic Origins	3 5			K1 3 56			456
Exchange	3 6	2 5		56	123456		

TEXTBOOK PUBLISHERS
Grades K through 7

Concepts	SRA	Burdett	Macmillan	Harcourt	Follett	Field	ABC
Family	123	K1	12	K1 3	123456		1 4 6
Freedom	3 5		23 56	3 56	123456		3456
Goods	123456	123 56	123456	1 456	123456	123456	1 3
Government	123456	123456	123 56	K1 3456	123456	123456	3456
Group	123456	K1 456	2 456	K123456	123456	123456	456
Heredity	12 56	34		K12 456	123456		
History	2 456	123456	123456	1 45			2 4 6
Identity	12 456	K 345	1	K1 456	123456	123	4
Income	1 34	123 5	456	3 56	123456	123456	2 6
Individuality	12 6	K1 34	2 456	K1234		12 56	6
Industrialization	23456	123 56	456	3 56	123456		1 56
Institutions (economic)	123456	3456	456	23456	123456		456
Institutions (political)	2 456	3 56	23 56	3456	123456		456
Institutions (social)	456	1 3 56	3456	K1234	123456		456
Interaction	12 456	45	1 34 6	K123456	123456	123456	4
Interdependence	1 3456	K12 456	123456	K1 3 56	123456	123456	123456
Justice	23456		2 56	3 56	123456		
Labor	123456	123456	456	3 56	123456		12 5
Land	123456	K123456	3456	123456	123456		345
Law	12 456	123	123 56	123456	123456		45
Leadership	3 56	34 6	6	3456	123456		456
Location	2 456	K1234 6	123456	K123456	123456	1234	456
Maps and Globes	23456	K123456	123456	123456	123456	12345	1 3456
Motivation	1 6			K123456	123456		3
Norms				4	123456		
Organization	23456	2 4	2 6	56			
Perception	1	4		4	123456	123456	
Population	23456	23 6	3456	5	123456	123456	3 6
Priority	12			56	123456		
Production	123456	1 6	2 456	123456	123456	123456	56
Progress	3456	2 6	3 56	456			
Race	56	4		123 5	123456		56
Region (geographical)	456	34 6	23456	K123 5	123456	123456	3 6
Resources (human)	1234 6	1234 6	3456	K12345	123456	123456	456
Resources (natural)	1234 6	K1234 6	3456	K123 56	123456	123456	456
Responsibilities	12 456	K1 34	23 6	K12345	123456	1 3456	3 56
Rights	12 56	3	2 6	K12345	123456		56

TEXTBOOK PUBLISHERS
Grades K through 7

Concepts	SRA	Silver Burdett	Macmillan	Harcourt	Follett	Field	ABC
Role	2	1	12 456	K12345	123456	123456	456
Rule	12 56	1234	12 56	K12345	123456	123456	34 6
Sanctions	6	4	2				5
Scarcity	123456	5	3456	123456	123456		1 56
Self-Esteem		K	1	K123456	23456	12345	
Services	123456	23 5	123456	12 456	123456	1234 6	3
Social Discrimination	56	4		6	123456		6
Socialization	123 56	K 4	1 3456	K123456	123456		34 6
Society	123456	K1 45	123456	K123456	123456		456
Specialization	12345	12 45	123456	3 56	123456	123456	3456
Supply	23456	345	3456	2 56		123456	45
Technology	123456	1 3456	3456	3 56	123456	123456	1 3456
Traditions	123456	K1 45	123456	K123456			6
Values	123456	K 456	123456	K123456	123456	1 3456	34 6
Wants	12345	K1 45	12 456	K123 56		1 3456	12 456

K-7 Skills

Problem-solving involves:

1. Ability to identify a problem.
2. Ability to determine reliable and questionable evidence.
3. Ability to hypothesize possible solutions to the problem.
4. Ability to choose a reasonable solution to the problem after applying the evidence, but willingness to change solution if new data warrant it.
5. Ability to recognize areas for further study.
6. Ability to use problem solving techniques in meeting personal problems.

The following skills are needed to successfully solve problems.

Inquiry Skills

1. *Observation/Description*

This is a sensory process used in reference to pictures, slides, photographs, sounds, feelings, situations or objects in the child's environment. It involves only simple description. It is used when an answer to a question is reached only through observation.

Question Examples:
What do you see in this picture?
Of what are these homes made?
What kind of sound did you hear?
What do you see in our classroom that is used to help you learn?

2. *Recalling*

Recall takes place when children describe something from their own experiences. It requires memory, not analysis. Recall responses are usually subjective and are not necessarily shared by all pupils in the class.

Question Examples:
Of what materials is your home constructed?
What sound did you hear on the way to school?
Of what does this picture remind you?
What did you do after school yesterday?
What do you like to do when you hear soul music?

3. *Comparing*

Comparing is used when children are asked to find similarities or differences among people, objects, ideas, situations, etc. Sometimes several questions must be asked in a series to develop this process.

Question Examples:
How is this dog like your dog?
How do these two books differ?
How do the holidays in Mexico differ from holidays in India? How are they similar?
What is similar about a paper clip, a rubber band, and a staple?

4. *Grouping/Classifying*

This skill involves relating concepts with similar characteristics. Some kind of guidelines or criteria must be established to determine groupings. This skill also involves recognizing the like characteristics of already established groups.

Question Examples:
What materials are used to build highways?
What kinds of people besides parents make rules?
Which of these trees would you put into a group?

5. *Analyzing*

This process involves the breaking down of a concept into parts and explaining reasons for the relationship of the parts. This process is usually used in questions asking why. It is different from recall in that the pupil has to find reasons that are not evident and that require some analysis or logical thought.

Question Examples:
Why do all families need homes?
Why did the Eskimo boy eat the caribou's eye?
Why do groups of people need rules?
Why are cars painted different colors?

6. *Interpreting*

Interpreting is used when children define or describe something on the basis of their own personal experience or feelings. Children must search their own experiences. Because of this, interpretation is highly subjective. Responses can be considered neither right nor wrong because they are statements of the pupil's perceptions or introspections.

Question Examples:
What is snow?
What do you think is happening to the boy in this picture?
How old is this man?
How does smog affect a window washer's job?

7. *Inferring*

Children project their own feelings or ideas into situations that are outside their own immediate experiences. An inference is similar to a "guess" but is based on facts and previous experiences. It is highly subjective. Inferences typically include such terms as probably, it might be, it could be, I think, etc.

Question Examples:
How do you think this little girl feels?
Are people with blue eyes always the smartest?
What do you think is the relationship between this lady and these three people?
Are people with long hair always hippies?

8. *Generalizing*
Children expand their knowledge to an unfamiliar situation through comparing, interpreting and inferring.

Question Examples:
Why do tourists come to Hawaii?
What happens to groups of people who have no rules?
What could you say about advertisements on T.V.?
What does all this tell us about Mexican people?

9. *Hypothesizing*
Children make tentative judgments, assumptions, or conclusions which can be tested.

Question Examples:
What do you think would happen if we didn't have any classroom rules?
How do you think an Eskimo builds his sled?
Do all mainland cities have smog?
What causes water pollution?

10. *Predicting*
This process involves application of the child's knowledge and experiences in generalizing and using hypotheses about possible outcomes of observed situations.

Question Examples:
What do you think this little girl will wear when it isn't raining?
What might happen if people began working only four days a week?
What do you think these children will do when they grow up?

11. *Evaluation/Valuing*
Children give value judgments to situations where their own values are the basis for response.

Question Examples:
Is it wrong not to stand for the flag salute?
Is it always wrong to cry?
Which of these children would you want for a friend?
Should this boy have done something differently?

12. *Synthesizing*
This process is used in compiling and organizing related facts and materials. It is the bringing together of information.

Location Skills

1. Interpreting information from maps and globes
   a. using directions.
   b. using location terms.
   c. recognizing location of home area in relation to state, nation and world.
   d. recognizing land and water masses on globe.
   e. interpreting keys and legends found on maps.
   f. using latitude and longitude to locate places.
   g. using small objects to represent large ones.
   h. determining distance on map by using scale of miles.
   i. estimating distances on a globe using great circles.
   j. interpreting physical features of land from symbols on map.
   k. drawing inferences about land areas from data presented on maps.
   l. understanding time zones and season changes.
   m. learning to interpret graphs, charts, tables and cartoons.

Values Skills

1. Understanding of the values people possess.
2. Understanding of the reasons for a person's beliefs.
3. Awareness of how to use values when confronted with choices.
4. Awareness of how choices relate to consequences.
5. Awareness that value alternatives exist for others.

Social Participation Skills

1. Ability to work with a group until a task is completed.
2. Ability to listen empathetically to another person's point of view.
3. Ability to take on the role of another individual.
4. Ability to gather information necessary for understanding an issue.
5. Desire to help others.

Study Skills

1. Ability to locate information using a variety of sources: books, encyclopedias, dictionaries, reference books, newspapers, magazines, primary sources and pamphlets.
2. Ability to organize information in a useable form.
3. Ability to evaluate information distinguishing among fact, fiction and opinion.
4. Ability to compare information from two or more different sources.
5. Ability to acquire information through reading, listening and observing.
6. Ability to communicate ideas to others both orally and in writing.

Kindergarten

The Child

The kindergarten child is concerned about himself and needs to understand that, while he is unique, he has many of the same feelings and problems as other children. Being egocentric, a kindergartner has to learn to get along with other children, to understand that he should share materials and to cooperate to complete tasks. He must feel good about himself and experience success as well as failure in his activities. He should have experiences that enable him to move about, exploring and manipulating the school environment and satisfying his intense curiosity. He needs experiences where he can learn to express his ideas and feelings to others rather than spilling them out in a jumbled fashion. His world is limited and his cognitive developmental level requires that most learning experiences be concrete and related to his immediate environment.

The Program

Content in the kindergarten classroom focuses on children's egocentric concerns and is largely related to self. Important questions are, "Who am I?," "How am I like other children?," "How am I different?". Skills to be learned include: working in groups; using classroom tools such as scissors and crayons; sharing materials; developing such inquiry skills as observing, comparing, grouping/classifying, interpreting and inferring; expressing ideas and feelings verbally and visually; representing real things and real people with symbols; perceiving simple spatial relationships or objects in classroom, house, school and places in the community; and developing a sense of social participation by helping those in need.

Teaching Activities

1. Making "ME" maps

This activity helps a child to explore his self-image. It includes many variations. Use large sheets of butcher paper or newsprint on which children can draw outlines of one another. Each child colors in his features and clothes. Display the "Me" map in sections around the room, and give children the opportunity to discuss likes and differences according to size, shapes, hair, eyes and skin color. Through this activity the teacher can help students develop such skills as *observing* and *describing* by asking children to describe themselves or guess who others are from another "Me" map. Another important skill is *comparing* through such questions as, "How does Jimmy look like Johnny and how does he look different?" *Classifying* and *grouping* are learned by asking children to group boys, girls, blonds, brunettes, etc. Children should identify pictures and maps as symbols which represent the physical features of real people and places. A simple activity such as this develops many important inquiry and sensory/motor skills, encourages cooperation and provides an opportunity for verbalizing. This activity not only develops learning, it also makes children feel good about themselves.

Concepts introduced: *self-esteem and attitudes toward self and others.*

2. Expressing feelings.

Make finger puppets of peanut shells or index paper (tag board) with different expressions on the faces, such as smiling, frowning, crying, looking angry, frightened or thoughtful. If you are not skilled in drawing them, find these expressions in magazine pictures of children and paste them on sock puppets. Ask children to place puppet with certain expression on their hand and discuss how

they would feel. Ask them, "When have you felt this way before?"

Role play simple situations on the playground or in the classroom involving such feelings as anger over sharing toys or happiness in winning a game. Discuss when such feelings might occur.

This activity helps children to express ideas and feelings and to listen to other children expressing their feelings and ideas.

Concepts introduced: *social behavior*.

3. Learning about roles and responsibilites of families.

Have children draw a picture of their family or cut out pictures from magazines of people who represent members of their family.

When completed, children should compare their families with those of other children.

What are the responsibilities of family members? Use animal families to initiate discussion. Examples: cat with kittens, bird in nest with eggs or baby birds, calves among cattle. Collect and discuss pictures of children helping with dishes, father and child at the store, grandmother cooking dinner, mother or father going to work.

Questions:

1. What are these people doing?
2. How do members of a family help each other?
3. What are some problems that families have?
4. Does our family depend on other families?

Pictures of family groups from other cultures should be used to discuss likes and differences.

Possible likes:
same family members.
same types of responsibilities.
same feelings about each other.
Possible differences:
different dress.
different skin color.
doing different activities.

Concepts introduced: *family, group, interdependence.*

4. Map of classroom.

Use a sand table or a large piece of butcher paper. Have children develop a map of their classroom with blocks to represent the furniture. Each child should place his name on his location at a table. Discuss the difficulty in making a map the actual size of the room and how it can be represented on paper or sand. Move the furniture to make the map inaccurate. This activity improves understanding of spatial relationships, use of symbols and use of classroom tools.

Concepts introduced: *location*.

5. Helping others.

Teacher initiates a discussion with children about those people who help them such as brothers, sisters, parents, teachers, classmates, neighbors, and people in the community. Then talk about people they help. Are there some people they would like to help? Are there elderly persons in the community who would like a visit, or a hospital or nursing home where the children might make decorations for the trays? Whatever the decision, have children work in small committees of two or three to complete visiting or decoration tasks.

After completing the activities, have the children discuss their feelings when helping others. Can they explain why they feel what they do?

Activity increases skill in working with others, manipulative skill in making decorations, verbal skill in visiting people and social participation in helping others.

Concepts introduced: *interdependence, needs, social behavior.*

Evaluation

Most of the evaluation at this level will be done through teacher observation. The teacher will want to prepare a checklist to help record the progress of the children. Items such as the following would be important to consider.

Does the child work well with others?
Does the child share materials?
Can the child express his feelings? Verbally? Through pictures?

First Grade

The Child

For the child who has not attended kindergarten, the characteristics and program stated earlier would generally apply. The child who is entering the second year of school has a great desire to learn to read and is inquisitive about extraordinary and different places. He still is concerned about himself but does want to learn about other people. His attention span remains limited, so activities should change frequently and opportunity for moving about needs to be provided. The first grader is better able to work with small groups to complete tasks.

The Program

Many of the learning experiences should be related to the groups in which a child belongs. Questions should be asked such as: "How do I behave in groups?", "What are my responsibilities?", "How do other people behave in groups?", "Why are groups formed?", "What are the groups in my community?", "What about groups in other parts of the world?" Skills to be introduced or extended include: Cooperation and problem-solving now extended to include hypothesizing and predicting. The child also can begin to develop such location skills as using directions and interpreting a legend or key. He also can begin to identify and acquire information and data necessary for understanding a complex issue.

Teaching Activities

1. What is a group?

Have children divide into groups of four. Give each group a task to complete without giving them any assistance in organizing their group or indicating how they should proceed. Permit them to work for a short period of time and then discuss how they proceeded. Find out if they are satisfied

with their group. If so, why? If not, why not? Talk about leaders and members.

What is a leader?
What should he or she do?
Why do we need leaders?
What happens if we don't have a leader of the group?
What is a member's responsibility?
How does a member help the total group?
What happens if a member does not do his share of the work?

Then help children organize their groups and complete the task assigned.

Concepts introduced or extended: *cooperation, leader and group.*

2. How do we communicate with people?

Spend some time with the children attempting to communicate with one another without *talking*. Suggest ideas they are to communicate. Tell them to discover new ways to communicate. Some possibilities they may discover are drawing pictures and making motions.

Discuss some of the ways we communicate:
within the family, talking, our expressions, our behavior;
within our community, newspapers, radio;
within our country, television;
within the world, satellite television.

How did people communicate before newspapers, television and radio?

Children can draw pictures for a mural of different means of communication then and now.

Concepts introduced: *communication and social behavior*.

3. Communicating with other people who are not present.

Find the name of a pen pal in another place and locate it on map. Find out information about where the child lives through filmstrips or books. Write a letter from the class describing activities it is doing and find out what the other child's life is like. Prepare a display of pictures, books, etc., of the pen pal's culture. Discuss what things are alike and what things are different.

Concepts introduced: *culture and communication*.

4. Learning about maps. Where do you live?

Children begin with a map of the school and extend it to include their homes and neighborhoods.

The map should be done on the floor using large sheets of brown paper. Be sure to provide directions. Blocks can be used to represent buildings or a legend may be introduced. The child should have an opportunity to place his own house on the map.

Take a walking tour around the neighborhood if children cannot remember street names. Children who ride buses should add the roads they take to arrive at school.

Concepts: *location and natural resources*.

5. Social participation: Wants and needs.

Have a selection of small items such as construction paper, pencils, tablets, candy, etc. Place rather high prices on the items. Give children a limited amount of play money to purchase items; enough for their needs but nothing extra for candy. Suggest they think carefully before they buy. Indicate one or two items they will need to complete their afternoon work. When work begins in afternoon, find out how many purchased things they needed. What happens if you spend money on the candy instead?

Discuss how families have to spend money. What about those people who never have enough money? How can we help?

Concepts: *wants, needs, decision-making, scarcity*.

Evaluation

Continuing the practice of teacher observation for evaluation will be important in the first grade. Additional skill items should be added to the checklist.

Children can draw pictures for teachers to evaluate their understanding of key concepts. For example: Instruct children to draw a picture of people communicating. If they have sufficient writing skills to write a sentence or two describing what the people are doing, this will improve the evaluation. Otherwise, they may discuss it orally for the class or the teacher may print a description on the picture for them. Another way this may be done is to have children cut pictures from magazines that depict different ways people communicate.

Second Grade

The Child

Second graders are outgoing and interested in new and different experiences. Television has introduced them to people and cultures beyond their own communities, but they often do not have an adequate understanding of these cultures. Spatial relationships and time are difficult concepts for them to perceive. Depending upon their community, far distant places aren't quite realistic to them. In addition, even though they have some general knowledge of their own community, it is often superficial. Having acquired some ability to read and limited research skills, they can begin to search out information on their own. They enjoy working together with partners. Role playing offers an outlet for their expressive abilities.

The Program

Many of the activities in the second grade should focus on the community and its interdependence with other communities. Some of the questions asked are: "How did our community begin?", "Who are some of the people we depend upon in the community to help us?", "How are we dependent on other communities?" Valuing skills should be introduced if they have not been previously. Map skills may now include reading from flat wall maps, determining distance by using scale and relating location of community to state, nation and world.

Teaching Activities

1. How do people make a living in our community?

Choose several of the local industries to visit. If the industries are too dangerous for young children to visit, take a bus tour around the community, viewing industrial locations. Estimate the number of workers by counting the automobiles in the parking lot. Determine how raw materials are secured by truck, train or airplane, and how completed products are shipped to market. Local companies also may have films of how products are made. Actually visit a less dangerous industry such as a milk-producing plant or a bakery.

Study as many different ways in which people make a living as possible. Develop a chart showing how many people work in different places and whether the products are sold in the community or shipped out. If they are shipped out, make a map indicating where the products are sent. Also, indicate from where the raw materials are shipped.

Determine whether the industries need workers who are especially trained for the jobs, such as engineers, or whether anyone can work there.

Invite some of these workers to the classroom to explain their jobs.

Concepts introduced: *exchange, goods, income, industrialization, technology, labor and production.*

2. How did our community develop?

Several children should interview some of the older residents of the community to learn how the community developed.

Draw a time line of the community using the life spans of the children, their parents, grandparents and the oldest residents. How has the community changed? Indicate population, industries, recreation, schools and customs. Try to find pictures of the community during different historical periods. Have children role play some of the early customs of the community such as a quilting bee and box social.

Concepts introduced: *population, customs, social change and cultural change.*

3. What are the rules in our community?

Have children play a game ignoring certain rules. Discuss what happens when you ignore rules. Arguing, fighting, game isn't any fun, you don't know who wins, etc., may be the responses. Children should generalize about "Why do we have rules?", "Who makes the rules?."

Children should then investigate rules (laws) in the home and the community. To accomplish this, you may want to ask parents or call community officials.

Find out how rules help people. Are there rules that people don't like? How is our community governed? Who enforces rules?

After children learn about the community government, organize the classroom in the same manner with a mayor and city council or other organization. Continue to run the classroom with this organization until children have some basic understanding of the roles of these individuals. You may want to have elections for the officials or you may appoint them.

Concepts introduced: *political behavior, citizenship, democracy, political institutions, government, rights, responsibilities and rules.*

4. Where is our community located? In the state, the nation, the world?

Move from use of floor maps to wall maps. Help children make the transition. Take a floor map and hang it on the wall.

Questions:

1. Can they still read the map?
2. What changes would make a better map?
3. Introduce regular wall maps with physical features.
4. Discuss location of the community in relation to its state capital, major cities, surrounding states, major cities of the United States and different sections of the world.
5. Plan trips to these other areas. What means of transportation would you use? How long would it take?

Concepts introduced: *areal association, location, land and water bodies.*

5. What problems do we have in the community?

Select a problem in the community that the children would be able to comprehend and understand.

Because of the previous study of industries in the community, you might choose unemployment or industrial pollution. The problem should be one of significance and one that often is faced by other communities around the world. The Coca Cola ecology game might be used at this time.

To help children acquire problem-solving skills, it may be wise to begin with a problem that could occur in the classroom or school.

Example: Janice was having trouble with her math problems. Gracie, who is seated next to Janice, had completed all the problems without difficulty. Janice asked Gracie if she could copy the answers to the problems. What could Gracie do?

Have children suggest all the possible alternatives open to Gracie. Then list the consequences that would result from each alternative. Discuss the value issues that are involved in making a decision — friendship, responsibility, honesty. Have children role play their solutions.

Concepts introduced: *values, decision-making and responsibility*.

Evaluation

By second grade, children can be encouraged to utilize self-evaluation. Help children prepare a self-evaluation checklist they can use to record the progress they are making.

Such a checklist might include:

I can understand how to read legends on maps.
I listen to other children's ideas.
I complete my tasks when working on a committee.
I know how to be a chairperson of a committee.
I know how to conduct an interview.

Third Grade

The Child

The third grade child is experiencing many changes in physical, mental and emotional characteristics. Small muscles are developing more rapidly than at previous stages, resulting in such changes as improved eye/hand coordination. Reading ability increases. Students can comprehend more completely. Value systems are being extended in the area of decision-making. The child usually wishes to win approval from authority figures. Children have longer attention spans, can discuss more aspects of topics and can manipulate different types of materials more easily. Individual differences and interests increase.

The Program

The major focus of the third grade curriculum is related to various types of communities around the world in which people live and work. The diversity of types of communities found throughout the world provides content for developing and extending individual interests, exploring many occupations and understanding values and value systems. Many opportunities for developing maps, communicative skills, organizing and utilizing different types of information, inquiry, interaction and many other skills should be provided for third graders.

Teaching Activity Examples

1. Where do people live in the world?

Why do people live in different parts of the world? Does living in different parts of the world cause people to be different or alike? How does living in different places contribute to the variations in people? To their similarities? How do

people adapt to differences in their part of the world?

What are some of the differences in the physical settings of places where people live? What causes some of these differences? How do people adapt to differences? What factors help people adapt to their environments? What factors hinder adaptation? What happens when people do not protect their environment? What can be done to protect the environment?

Various types of topographic maps can be used to acquaint students with landforms throughout the world. Slides, filmstrips, films and pictures can be shown of land utilization in different areas to promote discussions of how people use land differently due to cultural influences. Comparison and contrast can be effectively used, supported by visual aids and reading material from texts and trade books. An example might be to compare and contrast ways man has adapted to desert life by using pictures and reading material showing life in the Sahara and selected American cities in the desert area of the southwest. Students should be guided to formulate generalizations about how cultural factors, such as educational levels, contribute to the differences. Children can prepare murals or shoe box dioramas of the way different areas of desert, mountains, etc., have developed as a result of the culture.

Concepts introduced: *adaptation, areal association, climate, culture, ecology and environment.*

2. What types of communities are there in different parts of the world?

How are communities alike? How do they differ? Why are some communities alike? Why are some different? How do communities help or hurt each other? How are communities dependent on each other?

Students can work in small groups to construct different types of communities after doing some research by reading and observing pictures, films, filmstrips and other media. Pictures from magazines, old texts and other sources as well as various sized boxes, construction paper, cardboard, toys and other materials can be used in the construction. Groups can construct large and small communities, industrial, agricultural, tourist and many other types of communities. Parts can be interchanged to answer some of the suggested questions as well as others.

Sharing and other group skills, construction and manipulative skills, as well as many others are developed in this activity.

Concepts introduced: *basic needs, community, economic institutions, economic resources, employment, industrialization, population and production.*

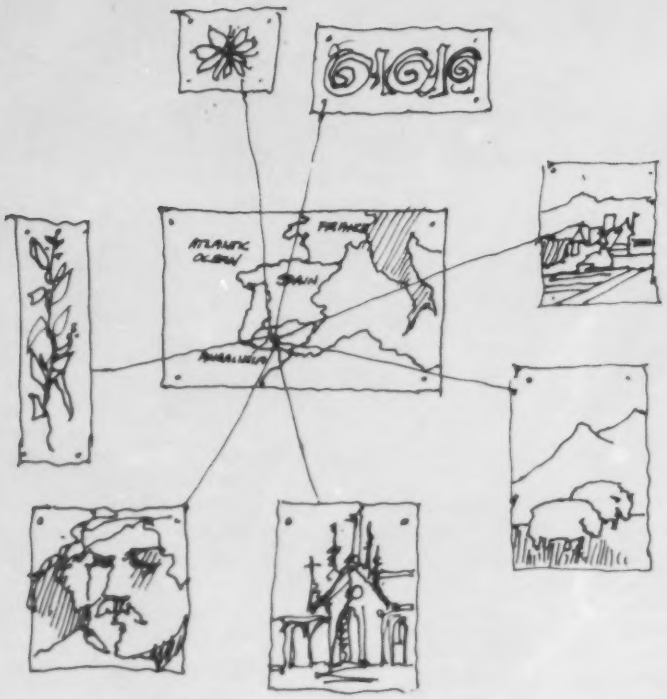
3. What types of communities might be needed in the future?

Why might communities of the future differ from communities of the past and present? How are we planning for communities of the future? Where might these communities be? Why do we need to plan for the future? What are some of the problems we must solve?

Maps, textbooks, pictures and other materials can be used to stimulate discussions in order to answer the suggested questions. The future city in Tokyo Bay and planned communities like Columbia, MD, are excellent examples of innovative communities. Students might construct "communities of the future" in small groups. Discussions of where the communities could be located and why they were constructed as they were could get into higher level thinking. Students could determine which community they would prefer and explain why. The practical and realistic aspects of each community could be evaluated.

Manipulative, construction and evaluative skills would be stressed along with communicative skills.

Concepts introduced: *change, cultural change, cultural values, culture, problem-solving and technology.*



4. Map activity.

Use a large bulletin board. Place a world map (limited detail) in the center. Indicate where the child is located in the world. As the children study the different communities around the world have them located on the world map. Pin a piece of yarn on the location of the community and extend it out to the side where pictures of the activities, land forms or products of the culture can be displayed. Be sure to do the same for the children's community. Make the displays of that culture as extensive as possible. This helps the child relate his location in the world to the location of the other communities and also to identify the physical and cultural characteristics of the different communities.

This activity is important in developing spatial relationships.

Concepts introduced: *areal association, climate, culture, environment, land, location, population, race, region and natural resources.*

5. How did myths develop? How do they affect people?

Have children read myths that are a part of the cultural heritage of a civilization they are studying. Some examples follow from Ann Caddell Crawford's *Customs and Culture of Vietnam* (Rutland, VT: Charles E. Tuttle Company, 1964).

Each year at Tet (Lunar New Year), the Vietnamese people spread lime powder around their home and draw a bow and arrow in it in front of their door.

Legend tells us that after defeating all the feudal lords and pacifying Vietnam, the Emperor Dinh-Tien-Hoang had to face an even more terrible enemy. Plague was spreading through the country. The Emperor realized that there was nothing his army could do about this menace.

He asked for help from heaven and a *genii* appeared who ordered him to have lime spread around every home in the kingdom of Vietnam. The *genii* also prescribed that a bow and arrow be drawn in front of each threshold to drive off the evil spirits. This was done and the plague subsided. The custom was established and has remained until this day.

Discuss how this myth affects the behavior of the Vietnamese people. How do you feel about the custom? What would you do if you saw someone spreading lime around his house?

Are there some customs in our own country that may seem strange to visitors from other countries? What are they? How have they developed?

Concepts introduced: *learned behavior, culture, custom, emotions, identity, and perception.*

Evaluation

Group evaluation can be used most effectively. Children should learn the role of constructive criticism. A child can assess his own performance and the performance of others, as well as assessing his role in the total group process.

Teachers must guide children's remarks toward the goal of assessing what has been accomplished and what needs to be improved.

Fourth Grade

The Child

The fourth grader wants to remain a child, yet wants to be grownup, too. Often, he is self-conscious and prefers group activity rather than working alone. In some groups, you will find a division between boys and girls. Therefore, it is important to provide experiences where children of both sexes can work together. Intellectually, the child is better able to understand abstractions as well as cause and effect relationships. Moral development should have reached the state where the child begins to understand the "why" of moral decisions. He is interested in other countries of the world and social aspects of these countries such as rulers and religions.

The Program

Content emphasis is on the state and how it is related to the nation and the world. Typical questions are: "Why does Indiana have a governor and the United States a president?"; "Why does the United States have a president and England a Queen?"; "What is Indiana like today?"; "How has it changed?"; "Who depends upon Indiana?"; "How is Indiana dependent upon other states and countries?" Extending the use of research skills is important in the fourth grade, as is increasing the number of problem-solving and valuing activities.

Teaching Activity Examples

1. What does our state look like?

Use committees of children to develop a physical features map of the state.

Make the map from:

1. a sand table
2. salt and flour
3. Plasticine clay

Be sure to include the plains, hilly regions, important rivers and large cities.

Have children secure actual pictures of different areas of the state to indicate how there may be variations in flat areas, hilly areas, etc. Also, find pictures of plains and hilly areas in other parts of the nation. Compare these areas. Why do they look different? What causes them to look different? Rainfall? Altitude? Climate?

Extend this same concept to other sections of the world in the same latitude or in different latitudes. How do these areas compare to Indiana?

Concepts introduced: *climate, ecology, environment, location, land and natural resources.*

2. How do the physical features and climate affect the activities of Indiana residents?

Select committees to investigate the industries and occupations within Indiana.

Examples:

1. steel mills
2. limestone quarries
3. farming
4. school bus manufacture
5. musical instrument manufacture
6. tourism (Indianapolis Speedway, state parks)

Questions to answer: Why have these industries become important in Indiana? What resources does Indiana have? Does the location of the state make a difference? Does the climate affect these industries and occupations? What other states or countries depend on Indiana for resources or products? What other areas supply Indiana with resources?

Find out the composition of cultures within Indiana. How many Indians, black Americans, Mexican Americans, Italians and Chinese live in Indiana?

Have children interview people in the community to find out why they live and work in Indiana.

Concepts introduced: *climate, ecology, economic distribution, industrialization, production, natural resources, technology, interdependence, race and human resources.*

3. What was life like in Indiana during pioneer days?

Committees of children can research different aspects of pioneer life such as building homes, ways of transportation, schools, churches, entertainment and occupations. The children then can prepare costumes and props to portray how life would have been in the pioneer days. Each committee can prepare its individual skit or the group can work together to develop a play.

Visits to the local museums and historical societies can be helpful in acquiring information about pioneer times.

Concepts introduced: *culture, cultural change, customs and society.*

4. How is Indiana governed?

Children can investigate the government of Indiana first by determining who represents them in the Indiana legislature. If possible have a legislator come talk with the children about his or her responsibility to the district. You may want to plan a trip to the State House in Indianapolis. Try to plan it when the legislature is in session.

Compare the state government with the national government. What are the responsibilities of the state government? How are they related to the national government? How does the governor's role compare with the role of the President?

You may want to develop a data retrieval chart to help children with the comparisons.

	State Government	National Government
Executive Branch	Governor	President
Legislative	Assembly	Congress
		House of Representatives
		Senate

Add as many additional categories as you think are important. You may want to compare this form of government with that of another country, such as England.

Concepts introduced: *political institutions, rules, rights, responsibilities, citizenship, elections,*

government, democracy and decision-making.

5. How can Indiana solve the pollution problem enveloping the Northern Indiana industrial area?

Introduce the problem through pictures, filmstrips and newspaper clippings.

Have children hypothesize some possible solutions to the problem. What happens if the mills are closed? What will happen to the cost of steel if the company has to buy pollution control equipment? Children should research information to test the hypotheses that are suggested.

After children have arrived at what they believe is the best solution, have them write a letter describing it. Send it to the local newspaper, the governor, or a steel company official.

Concepts introduced: *interdependence, labor, production, technology, conflict, decision-making, environment and industrialization.*

Evaluation

To insure that children possess problem-solving skills, the teacher should present them with a hypothetical problem situation. Have children write their responses to the situation. An example might be:

> The children in your neighborhood want to have a playground but none is available. A local businessman has a vacant lot that is not being used. The children think they should be able to develop the lot into a playground. How can they persuade the businessman to let them utilize his lot? What problems are involved?

Have children discuss or write their solutions.

Fifth Grade

The Child

The fifth grader is a mixture of restlessness, boredom and enthusiasm. Many fifth graders are experiencing bodily changes and rapid growth spurts. These changes cause periods of frustration and anger. Competition may be keen among some children. Generally, though, the fifth grader is enthusiastic and interested in places and problems in the news. Most of these problems are within their level of understanding and they want to know the "why", or what are the events that caused these problems.

By now all of the skills have been introduced to the children and it is crucial that continued use of the skills be accomplished through the introduction of new situations.

The Program

Learning experiences in the fifth grade should be focused on the United States, but comparative

studies of other areas of the world should not be forgotten. Countries that are frequently in the news often will determine what areas of the world should be studied. Some questions to be answered: What events in the development of our country have produced an industrialized, urbanized nation? What problems are caused by urbanization and industrialization? Are there other countries in the world that are experiencing similar problems? What can I do to help make changes?

Teaching Activity Examples

1. "Placing Me" in the proper order.

This activity will help the fifth grader learn to place himself into the chronological order of American history. Several different activities may be used:

1. Ask the child to place his own personal experiences in the right order.
2. Separate events from the present time by using arithmetic terms such as decade, century, etc.
3. Group the historical events into time periods.
4. Draw a time line of key events in American history using the child's life span as the measurement unit.

Concepts introduced: *change, identity.*

2. How do you feel about it?

Expressing feelings about historical events helps children better understand them. Select key events that have occurred in American history either in the form of pictures or descriptive passages. Examples might be the Boston Tea Party, a slave auction or the attack on Pearl Harbor.

Have children respond using a three-point scale:

in favor	no feeling	against

Children should discuss why they feel this way about the event. Committees of children can then research those events that stirred the most feelings among the children.

Concepts introduced: *emotion, communication, interaction and values.*

3. What changes have occurred in the family life?

How has family life changed? Are the roles and responsibilities of the family members the same as they were one hundred or two hundred years ago? Establish committees to investigate family life during these periods in American history and the family life of today. This study will introduce the problems that families presently face in today's urbanized and industrialized nation.

The committees can report to the total group through role-playing, panel discussions, or data retrieval charts.

Children can then choose another nation in the world and do a similar comparative study of changes within the family life of that country. You may want to choose an African nation such as

Kenya, Tanzania or an Asian country such as Japan.

Concepts introduced: *economic behavior, social behavior, culture, custom, family, group, heredity, industrialization, urbanization, norms, responsibilities, role, socialization, society and values.*

4. Where did they come from?

Map study can aid the child in understanding how America has acquired the present racial and ethnic mix. Develop maps to indicate the earlier explorers that came to this country. Then continue on through the periods of history to show where major immigrations occurred. Show not only where the people came from but where they settled in the United States.

Concepts introduced: *adaptation, areal association, cultural change, population, race, region, human resources and natural resources.*

5. How do people help others?

What is a volunteer? What are some of the volunteer groups in our community? nation?

Discuss the term volunteer. Have children hypothesize why they think pe_ple volunteer. Send children out into the community to interview some of the volunteer workers. Ask them their reasons for volunteering. Bring the data back into the classroom to test the hypotheses that had been generated. Draw some generalizations about volunteer groups.

Investigate some of the national volunteer groups. Can the children become volunteers? Should they? They may want to run errands for the elderly people in the community or visit them and read the newspaper or stories to them if they are unable to do so. Are there people in other parts of the world they may help?

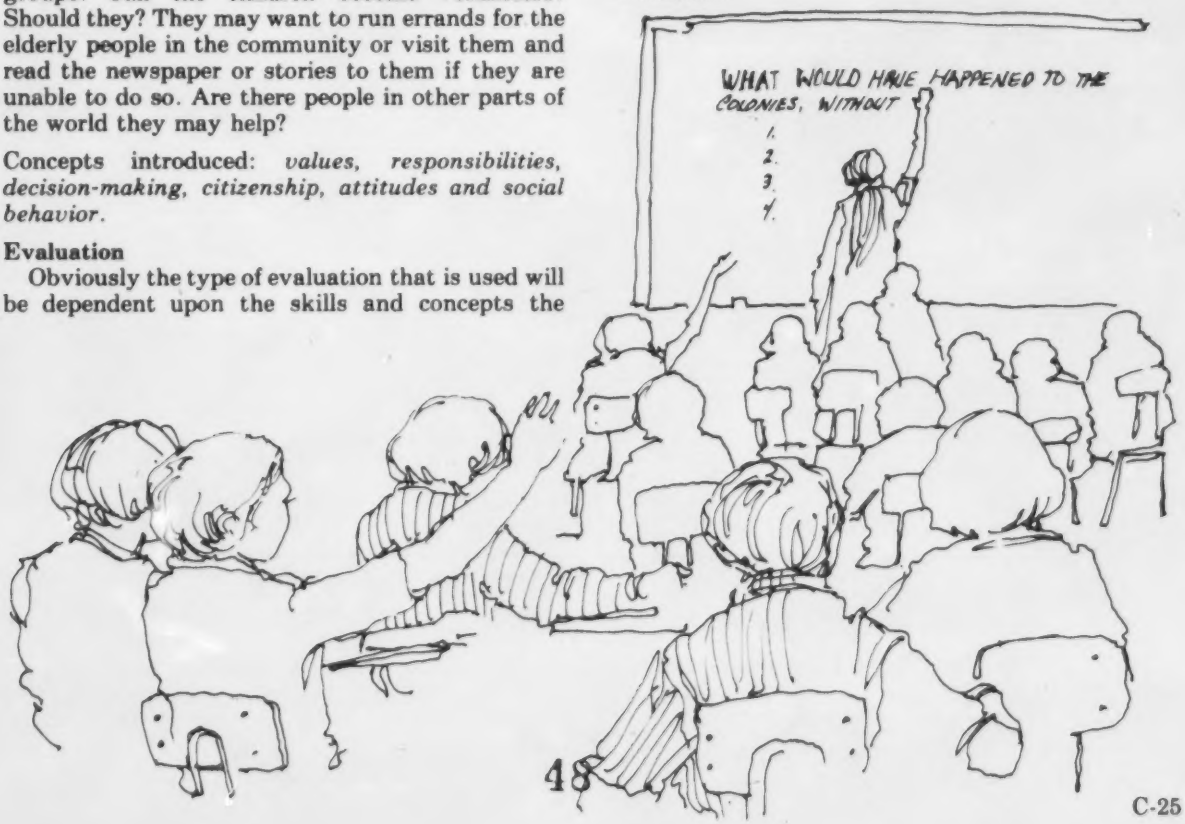
Concepts introduced: *values, responsibilities, decision-making, citizenship, attitudes and social behavior.*

Evaluation

Obviously the type of evaluation that is used will be dependent upon the skills and concepts the teacher is attempting to develop. To ask children information-type questions will not increase their thinking skills. If the child is only recalling facts, then it is a test of his memory rather than determining his ability to think. Questions such as the following related to the previous activities may be asked to increase thinking skills.

1. How do you think our country would have been different if the Spanish had landed at Plymouth Rock?
2. What would have happened to the colonies if there had been no Boston Tea Party?
3. What would our nation be like today if the South had won the Civil War?

Children's responses to these questions will not only reveal their ability to think, but how they apply the information they have acquired to a new situation.



Sixth Grade

The Child

Sixth grade is generally a transition period for the child. The child is acquiring more of the responsibilities of an adult, but hasn't lost his enthusiasm for the fun and games of childhood. More decision-making will be required of the child. He will possibly ask himself, "Should I try smoking or drugs?", "Should I follow my parents' rules?"

The sixth grader is usually a very sociable individual who wants to participate in activities with his peers. Frequent opportunities for expression of his feelings and opinions should be provided.

The Program

Many of the learning activities in sixth grade should focus on cultures other than our own. Children should focus on comparative types of questions, e.g., How does a drought in Russia or India affect the people of that country and our own country? How are countries interdependent with one another? How do I fit into the world? In-depth studies of a few cultures are more beneficial than superficial studies of many cultures.

Teacher-pupil planning of learning experiences will improve the children's decision-making abilities.

Teaching Activity Examples

1. Where do I fit in the world?

To help children find their place in the world, develop a pictorial display of man's activities in relation to the physical environment. Divide the display into three sections.

Part I. Natural Regions. Show pictures of the animal life and physical features of the area.

Part II. Man's use of the natural regions. Select pictures of agricultural activities, mining, fishing, cities, etc.

Part III. The effect of man's activities on natural regions. Display pictures of pollution such as industrial smog over cities, oil spills and visual pollution.

Discuss children's role of decision-makers of the future in determining how natural resources will be used.

Concepts introduced: *human resources, natural resources, adaptation, ecology, environment and industrialization.*

2. What can we do about the world environment?

Help children create a United Nations Conference on the Human Environment such as was held in Stockholm during 1972.

Children should assume the following roles:

industrialized nations
underdeveloped nations
different political ideologies
environmental specialists

Research that would be necessary for the child to play his role successfully should be completed.

The children should formulate the agenda for the conference and create their own speeches, indicating their positions on the problem. Decisions should be

reached about solutions for environmental problems.

Concepts introduced: *industrialization, interdependence, law, leadership, rights, responsibilities, technology, values, political institutions, economic distribution, conflict and consumption.*

3. How has the environment affected the development of different cultures?

Divide the class into committees to study how the environment has affected the development of culture. Select two different areas for comparison. Find out about the following:

a. climate
b. topography
c. natural resources
d. human resources

Determine how these factors have affected the economic development of the country and the various aspects of their culture.

a. clothing
b. art and music
c. family life
d. government

Concepts introduced: *environment, culture, climate, land, government, natural resources, human resources, technology and economic distribution.*

4. Looking at our world.

To help children better understand the total world, have them develop the following oval world maps on 18 x 24 acetate for overlays on a political world map. Divide the class into committees.

The first committee should make a poster board map of the world marked and color coded to show continents, islands, oceans, seas, with major bodies of water and land identified by name.

Remaining committees should make overlays of the world's:

a. mountainous regions
b. river regions
c. plains regions
d. equatorial or tropical regions
e. sub-tropical
f. semiarid regions
g. desert regions
h. latitude and longitude
i. populations
j. natural resources

These maps will be important aids when discussing the environmental problems, cultures, etc., of the world.

Concepts introduced: *areal association, climate, ecology, environment, location, region, natural resources and human resources.*

5. What should we do?

Have children in class represent the distribution of people in the world. Example: In a class of 32 children, two would represent United States, three South America, five Europe, seven Africa and 15 Asia. Distribute world resources in the form of candy: United States 17, Europe 7, South America 2, Africa 4, Asia 2. Have children discuss how they feel about this distribution. Have them conduct research to determine why it has occurred.

Then present children with the following value dilemma situation.

> If a country is wealthy, has a high standard of living, sufficient natural resources and a surplus of goods, should it help a country or countries that have starving people? If so, how can it help, and would there be any problems if it helped the country or countries? How much help should the wealthy country give the poorer one?

Discuss what options are open to the wealthy country. Which option would they choose for the country? Ask children how they would feel if the wealthy country were the United States. Would

their choice of options remain the same? What are the value issues related to the problem?

Concepts introduced: *scarcity, values, economic distribution, economic behavior, government and decision-making.*

Evaluation

Individual conferences with children are often a revealing form of evaluation. Attitudes, understandings and interest may be assessed by this method. The teacher should identify the goal of the conference.

The goal might be to determine the child's attitude toward people of another culture. Questions for the conference should be prepared. For example: If you were to take a trip anywhere in the world, where would you go? Why? What would interest you most within the country? How do you think the people would treat you?

The child should be prepared for the conference and have his own goals and questions in mind.

This type of evaluation is more time-consuming, but it is probably one of the most beneficial for the child and the teacher. An older child often benefits more from this type of evaluation since he has more to contribute to the discussion.

Seventh Grade Global Studies

Introduction

Two separate units on world civilizations have been included in the guidelines. The reason is that this course is taught at two different levels, one basically secondary and one essentially elementary. The secondary unit assumes that the student attends a junior-senior high school with typical secondary patterns. The elementary unit assumes that the student is in a K-8 or K-7 curriculum.

The Child

The seventh grade child is an adolescent who is not always certain who he is. In many cases he is in the lowest grade of a combined junior-senior high school. He is usually open and responsive in classroom situations. Sometimes he welcomes the stimulus and challenge of school, but he is very subject to peer group leadership and pressure. Emotions run the gamut from high to low — often without much middle.

The Program

This is the first grade level in which the student usually has a full period of social studies throughout the year. Programs tend to be structured more according to high school patterns than elementary. The student moves each period from classroom to classroom, and the social studies teacher often is certified according to the secondary pattern in social studies.

Present subject matter emphasis in most schools organized according to the secondary pattern has been called "Non-Western Areas", a one-year course which places emphasis on Eastern Europe, the Middle East, Africa and Asia. This is usually the expected curriculum except in those school systems which have adopted a complete textbook series, grades one to eight, in which there is a comprehensive placement of content and concepts according to the editor's plan.

The major orientation of seventh grade social studies is in geography, but increasingly all programs are multidisciplinary and draw from all the social sciences — geography, history, political science, economics, sociology and anthropology.

Many of the concepts and experiences listed as samples for grade six are adaptable for seventh grade. Care should be taken that there be neither repetition nor serious omissions in student progress. It is customary in many schools to prepare in-depth units on specific countries or areas, and often to teach them as mini-courses. Because of the tendency to look at the seventh grade as the beginning of the secondary level, and because students often are brought together from several elementary schools, there is much emphasis on progress in development of communications and social studies skills. There are a number of organizing ideas which can be used on a comparative basis with all units.

Teaching Activities

These are examples and are neither complete nor fully developed.

1. Where and what is the Middle East and why should we be studying it?

Probably because of this area's contemporary significance it often is the first unit studied after the preliminary survey unit. It is an excellent unit to emphasize the relation of geography to historical development and to present situations.

Introductory activity: Ask students to bring current news magazines, newspapers and other materials, and cut out articles and pictures relating to the Middle East. Divide class into small groups of four or five; distribute clippings and pictures. Group assignment — see if they can answer one of the following questions from the clipping. Each group might have a separate question.

"What is the Middle East?"
"Where is it important?"
"Why is it important?"

One group might assume the responsibility of preparing a bulletin board from the collected clippings and pictures.

Objectives. Students will:

a. List the countries which are usually considered

to be "The Middle East", and locate them on maps and globes.

b. Form an hypothesis as to why this area is called the Middle East and seek information to verify or refute it.

c. Identify from the articles and pictures aspects of life and culture in the Middle East which seem to be either interesting or important for further study.

This should be followed by a study of the geography of the area.

Concepts introduced: *conflict, culture, maps and globes, and geographical regions.*

2. Why is it necessary to have a knowledge of the history of Africa in order to understand Africa today?

This question should be asked for any area under study; the history which is introduced should be pertinent to understanding the contemporary scene.

The students will have been acquainted with introductory ideas: Where is Africa and why is it important to study? Now have the students make contemporary maps of Africa listing the names of most of the countries. Compare these maps with wall or atlas maps of Africa between 1945-1960. Have students point out the major changes in name and area boundaries.

Questions:

1. How much of Africa is today controlled by European nations?
2. How did some of the major nations (Ghana, Nigeria, Zaire, Mali) gain independence?
3. To what extent did the presence of European imperialist nations aid or impede the political and economic development of modern African states?
4. What was Africa like before Europeans became interested in it?
5. What are the cultural contributions of the great countries of the "glorious age of Africa" (before European colonization — Mali, Ghana, Soonghay)?

Objectives. Students will:

a. Locate and name the major countries of Africa on a map.

b. Tell how the countries of Ghana, Zaire, Nigeria and Mali gained independence.

c. Present an informal debate defending or opposing the statement that "European colonization in Africa aided the development of African states more than it hindered it".

d. Write and *present dramas depicting the culture and development of early Mali, Soonghay or Ghana.*

Concepts introduced: *history, culture, and tradition.*

3. Why is the Indian village probably the most

significant aspect of Indian society?

In any study of the culture of an area, the most significant aspects of the culture should be identified and described. In India, probably the most significant and enduring aspect of Indian society is the village. It encompasses the other factors which usually are featured as identifying characteristics of Indian culture, i.e., joint family, caste, Hinduism.

Many instructional resources organize activities and concepts around the small Indian village.

Present a filmstrip, either a general one on "What Is India?" or one featuring Indian villages. Discuss the central ideas of the filmstrip. What new terms or concepts are introduced? What is new or different from what students have experienced in their studies of other areas? How many villages are there in India? What proportion of Indian people live in them?

Collect pictures of Indian villages and village life. Have students find out the circumstances under which some of the major cities, Bombay, Calcutta, New Delhi and Madras were established.

Introduce ideas connected with modernization, e.g., the move from village to the city. Is this happening in India? What problems are there for Indians who move from village to city?

Why is it difficult to change traditional ideas and cultures of Indian village dwellers? Should the Indian government force villagers to change; to control population growth? Eliminate caste barriers? Change languages? Require all children to attend school?

Objectives. The student will:

a. List the main ideas presented in a filmstrip about Indian villages.
b. Compare village life in India with village life in Africa.
c. Explain how the major cities of India were established and contrast with the establishment of New York, Chicago and Indianapolis.
d. Compare the difficulty of changing traditional behaviors and values in India with some arbitrary American beliefs, i.e., discrimination against certain ethnic or racial groups, status of women.

Concepts introduced: *village, caste, joint family, tradition and values.*

4. The People's Republic of China is a communist state. What does this mean?

It is assumed that in the first six years students have acquired a working knowledge of what democracy means and how it works. It appears that students do not really possess this knowledge. It is necessary to establish some basic generalizations about democracy before there can be any significant understanding of communism.

This general question would probably be a recurring focus throughout the study of China. In the introductory stages — What do you know about China? — someone will state that it is a communist state. Very few students will know much about communism unless they have had an earlier exposure.

Use films, filmstrips, newspaper articles, radio and television. As students isolate and list what seem to them to be identifying characteristics of communism in China, make comparisons with the United States.

Objectives. The student will:

a. Compare basic characteristics of a communist state with the democratic United States.
b. Compare and contrast the education of children in China with the education of children in the United States.

Concepts introduced: *communism and democracy.*

5. How does living in Japan compare with living in the United States? Two of the ideas to be avoided in any study of another people are that behaviors and ideas which are different from ours are inferior and that whatever practices exist in this country are good and natural, but

customs and values of other countries or peoples are strange or inferior.

Have a person of Japanese background talk with the class about his or her life in Japan, perhaps bringing pictures and items from a Japanese home, relating in what ways the culture was the same or different when he or she came to the United States.

Write pen pal letters to Japanese students.

Have students find out what students of their age would be studying in Japan.

Study Japanese food — perhaps cook sukiyaki or tempura.

Objectives. The student will:

a. Compare student life in Japan with life in the United States.
b. Welcome, listen to and react to a classroom talk by a resource person.
c. Form an hypothesis as to why foods are different in different countries.

Concepts introduced: *culture, tradition, geography, values, socialization and self-esteem.*

6. If you were to receive an invitation to go by plane to the U.S.S.R. tomorrow and the only information about the Soviet Union available to you are the wall maps in the room, a globe and the maps in the text, what guesses could you make about the Soviet Union from those maps?

This type of an exercise brings together a multitude of learning experiences with maps and globes that can reveal the extent to which students effectively can employ these learning aids.

Questions which could be used include:

1. Where is the Soviet Union?
2. How far away is it from your home city?
3. What can you tell about the terrain? the mountains, the plains, deserts, etc.?
4. How can you tell where most people live?
5. What can knowledge of the latitude tell you about the climate?
6. How would the presence of bodies of water influence the climate?
7. What kinds of clothing do you think the people might be wearing?
8. Is there any way to figure out how much the time in Moscow differs from your home city?
9. What are the major political divisions?

Objectives. The student will exhibit ability to extract information from maps and globes and to relate such information to questions about geographic elements in the area.

Concepts introduced: *latitude, scale of miles, time zones, topography and map symbols.*

Concepts

Flow Charts

The following material consists of some clarifying models of the social science disciplines. They are intended to help teachers visualize the interrelatedness of ideas within a discipline and to represent the total structure of thinking in each discipline.

The material is excerpted from the elementary school social studies series, *Our Working World*, *New Paths in Social Science Curriculum Design* and *Organizing a Curriculum Around Social Science Concepts*, both written by Lawrence Senesh, a professor of economics at the University of Colorado.

The charts in this section elaborate on the ideas presented in the clarifying models. A separate chart is provided for each discipline.

CONCEPT CHART: ANTHROPOLOGY

Major Concepts in Anthropology	Elaborations			
	a	b	c	d
1. Man and Culture As an animal, man occupies a unique place among living things.	The Linneaus System classifies all living things. The Order: Primates include man as well as the apes and monkeys.	Man shares certain characteristics with other members of the Class: Mammalia.	Man and his cousins, the primates, share many physical attributes. Man has many distinctive physical traits which differentiate him from his fellow primates as well as all other animals.	A change in the natural environment of some prehuman primates brought about certain physical changes which characterize man.
2. The Family The family is the basic unit of society in the transmission of culture.	Man, as a member of the Class: Mammalia, needs close contact between mother and child for survival.	There are some similarities between "families" as found in other members of the Order: Primates as well as man.	The family of man is unique in the symbiotic relationship between male and female.	The family is the oldest of all social institutions in man's time on earth.
3. Tools Culture includes tools.	Although some animals make a limited use of tools, man is unique in the degree to which he is a toolmaker.	All tools are simple or complex combinations of three basic tools: 1) *bashers* — hammering and pounding implements; 2) *binders* — implements to tie, wrap, sack or cover; 3) *levers* — simple levers, cams, wedges, plus implements of rotation.	Tools may be classified into those of war-hunting types and agricultural-domestic types. Toys and learning tools fit in here as well.	Man and his cultural evolution may be dated relatively by the tools he has left.
4. Language Culture includes language.	While a number of animals have various degrees of ability to communicate — man is unique in his ability to communicate abstractly.	Man's ability to communicate is learned because he has lost most of his instincts. Abstract or symbolic communication — oral, physical, and written — makes up language.	All men speak a language since they all possess culture.	All men have the capacity to learn the language of other men. All modern languages have an equal ability to express all basic ideas.

Concept Chart: Anthropology

e	f	g	h	i
Fossil remains of men have shown that man has changed physically since the crossing of the threshold from prehuman to human.	Many scientists differ as to what constitutes man as a physical being in the early stages of his evolutionary development.	There are several reasons living organisms may change under certain conditions.	There is universal agreement among scientists that man is a result of the processes of evolution. However, there is some disagreement about the relative importance of some of these processes in the physical evolution of man.	There is a single species of man today: *Homo sapiens*.
In the family of man dependence of the offspring upon the family is longer than in any other animals.	The family has certain primary and secondary functions that it attempts to carry out.	The form of the family has varied throughout man's history.	The form of the family is dependent upon the society in which it exists.	How the family carries out its primary and secondary functions is dependent upon the society in which it exists.
Man's environmental background may be deducted from observing the materials of which his tools were made and the apparent specialized purposes for which they were used.	Toolmaking early developed into specialized crafts. Specialists may exist only in organized societies. The more complex the tool, the more complex and highly evolved is the society.	The existence of specialization indicates the existence of economic surplus which only can occur in a society which operates above a basic food level of efficiency.	Mainstream man has followed a logical pattern of employment of stone and metal tools, and ultimately, using knowledge gained, used most elements.	Proceeding from ready-shaped implements picked up from the ground, man now is in a position to affect the evolution of his environment through use of his tools.
Languages are constantly changing.	All languages have certain basic common elements.	Common roots, elements, and words may be evidence of common group ancestry, diffusion of culture, and/or migration. Linguistics is the study of these similarities and differences.	Language divisions are reflections of migrations and isolations. Factors of language diffusion are trade, migration, invasion and conquest.	Cultural isolation often is a greater factor in language difference than is geographical isolation.

j	k	l	m	n
Although there are certain differences among groups of men today, all human beings share the vast majority of genetic traits or have physical characteristics in common.	The clustering of certain inherited physical traits results in the grouping of man into varieties or ethnic groups by some scientists. Scientists differ concerning the number of these ethnic groups.	Measurement of man for the purposes of classification into certain groups is not done on the basis of cultural or intellectual characteristics.	All members of *Homo sapiens* have certain basic capacities for attaining different cultural and intellectual levels. These basic capacities do not differ among the ethnic groups of man.	Scientists universally reject the belief in the superiority or inferiority of ethnic or racial groups.
Authority and behavior in the family has changed in its long history.	Authority and behavior in the family vary from society to society.	The form of the American family has been determined by the Old World backgrounds of American society and history.	The functions of the American family have changed in the course of its history.	The family still is a vital part of each individual's life.
Diffusion of cultures and migrations of people and their relative cultural development may be seen in their tool kits. Generally speaking, a commonality of tool types often is an indicator of cultural contact.	Isolated cultures often develop tools peculiar to a specific area and for a unique, specialized purpose.	Technical tool development can be a misleading factor for evaluating cultural level. The environment prescribes tool needs.	Tools cause changes in cultures, and cultures cause changes in tools.	There often is a special time when a culture is ready for a tool.
The origin of language is not known, but it probably evolved from oral expression of basic needs and fears. Parallel to oral expression is physical gesticulation.	As the society to which man belonged became more complex, the language by necessity became more complex and formalized.	Writing and records are parts of language which evolved after speech. By definition, history begins with writing which definitely states ideas.	Writing probably originated about seven or eight thousand years ago, but depiction and expression through drawings, etc., is in evidence dating back more than fifty thousand years ago.	Written language sooner or later becomes an invention of necessity for further evolution of a culture. Trade and inter-cultural contact probably are directly related to this.

5. Curing Illness Culture is the means for curing illness.	Different theories of disease are known in part.	Different cultures have distinctive theories about disease.	Prehistoric peoples performed some remarkable surgery and bone setting.	Cure among modern aborigines and civilized peoples may depend upon use of supernatural powers.
6. Quieting Fears Culture provides the means for quieting fears.	Worldwide, both ancient and modern people fear the unknown.	Religion probably began with the earliest human beings.	Rituals were devised to keep the world functioning smoothly.	Special rituals were invented to restore the world to normal after disastrous floods, volcanic eruptions, etc.
7. Environmental Adjustment Culture is the means of adjusting to and changing the environment.	Fire was the first great force controlled by man about 500,000 years ago in Europe and Asia.	Fire was used, maintained, and carried from place to place for thousands of years before it could be manufactured.	Fire probably was obtained from a lightning-caused blaze.	With fire, mankind enlarged its food supply.
8. Acquiring Culture is acquiring food, shelter and clothing.	Man began as a tropical primate and did not need fire, artificial shelter, or clothing to survive.	When man moved away from the equatorial climate, clothing and shelter became necessary.	Early man was dependent upon the natural resources of the environment for food and protection.	Early man was a hunter and gatherer. The first division of labor assigned men to hunt and women to gather.
9. Social Control Culture is social control.	Family authority based upon the greater strength of the father is the earliest form of social control.	Rule by the elders, usually oldest adult males, is the simplest extension of family control.	Matriarchate appears when women produce the staple foods, own the home, and have responsibility for education of the young.	Social control changes from kinship to territorial tribe, to town, state or nation (increased food supply allows for increased population.) International authority is next.

Doctors or medicine men were the first specialists and formed the oldest profession. Medicine men directed rituals for curing which included praying and singing.	It was thought that disease was caused by an enemy sending a foreign object or spirit into a person.	The cure was to remove the foreign object or spirit by sucking it out.	Disease resulted when the person's spirit was away from the person.	A cure was effected by the return of the spirit.
Solar and lunar eclipses frightened ancient and modern primates. Rituals were devised to restore the sun and moon to normal.	Illness and death have been constant sources of fear for mankind.	Rituals and appeals to supernatural powers were used to help avert fear of death and illness.	Rituals, including magic, were used to foretell the future.	Rituals of all kinds were used to help mankind in daily activities.
With fire, mankind could live in temperate and arctic zones.	Fire was first manufactured about 25,000 years ago.	Aborigines produce widespread and remarkable changes on vegetation by use of fire.	Vegetation was set on fire to drive game.	Fires were set to remove brush and trees to facilitate travel and hunting.
Knowledge of plant life probably led women to discover agriculture.	All simple and crude agriculture was the concern primarily of women.	Agriculture fostered settlement in one place and encouraged development of houses, pottery, and the domestication of animals (about 10,000 years ago).	Herding, use of draft animals, fighting for pasture land, and other warfare became male activity.	First clothing was natural skins of animals. Man began cutting and sewing these skins 25,000 years ago.
On all levels of cultural complexity and population size, ideas of supernatural powers have been used in social control.	Among small hunting and gathering peoples, fear of witchcraft and fear of being accused of sorcery were potent forces for maintaining local values and behavior patterns.	Early states were based on conquest, and social control was dependent upon military might.	High central authority was often based on claim of supernatural power, and the basis for kinship changed from the idea that Pharaoh was God to the belief in the divine right of kings.	Social control often is predicated upon fear, but the fear may have very diverse sources.

There has always been close connection between theories of illness and cures and a belief in supernatural.	Drugs and medicinal herbs were discovered by aborigines and ancient man and used as home remedies.	Older women delivered babies and developed special theories and practices distinct from medicine men.	Scientific medicine is very recent and still rejected by some religious groups.	One theory present among primitive and modern people suggests that illness results from breaking religious rules.
Fertility rites for man, animals, and plants are known to be extremely ancient (at least 25,000 years old) and still are continued in some areas.	Man's fear of death was reduced by the idea of life after death.	Elaborate burials were widely used to reduce the fear of death. For example, the pyramids of Egypt were built to serve as tombs.	Rituals directed to please spirits of dead relatives (ancestor worship) are a special way to get supernatural aid for all types of difficulties.	Belief that supernatural power may be acquired, or may be directed, is worldwide.
Fires were set to clear land for agriculture and grazing.	Fires were set to renew and improve pasture for game and for domestic cattle.	Building roads, dams, farms, and cities changes the environment.	Man's ability to use the resources of an area depends upon his degree of cultural development.	Modern science permits mankind to use many resources not available to primitive man.
Weaving of vegetable fiber (cotton, flax, etc.) and animal fibers (hair, wool, silk) developed after the Neolithic Revolution (10,000 B.C.).	Many distinctive types of food, shelter, and clothing have been developed around the world as a result of the combination of products available, either natural or manufactured, and culture patterns.	Clothing is essential under some circumstances. The decision to wear or not wear clothing and, if worn, the type used, nearly always depends on arbitrary, learned behavior.	People learn to eat and enjoy or reject and dislike various foods entirely as a result of culture patterns.	Culture is conservative, and styles in food, shelter, clothing, etc., generally resist change except under some unusual conditions (recent styles of women's dress).
Fear of physical punishment by powerful authorities may be the oldest form of social control.	Fear of punishment by supernatural power in this life and in the next has been used.	Fear of being removed from normal human intercourse by exile or prison is both ancient and modern.	Some communities do not refer to the supernatural to support rules of interpersonal relations.	Most communities have lived by the rule, treat neighbors as one wishes to be treated. Mankind has invented an infinite number of ways to insure social control.

CONCEPT CHART: ECONOMICS

A

Major Concepts in Economics	Elaborations			
	a	b	c	d
1. Interdependence People are interdependent, and dependence has been increased.	Members of a family need each other.	Members of the family are dependent on others outside the family to satisfy basic needs.	All families and family members in a community are dependent upon one another. Division of labor refers to the separation of production into various jobs.	Individual producers of goods and services exchange with others to get the goods and services they need to satisfy their basic wants.
2. Scarcity, Wants, and Decision-Making A conflict between unlimited wants and limited resources creates the need for decision-making.	No one can have all the things he wants. We must choose from among the goods and services available.	Consumers buy the goods they want or need most.	Choices are based on the individual's value system, but the value systems are to a large extent culturally derived.	There are not enough resources to produce all the goods and services all the people want.
3. Money, Income, and Wealth A. Money — Money is an institution to facilitate the operation of an exchange economy.	The money we spend goes to many people.	When we spend money, it does not disappear; it continues to circulate as long as people do not hoard it.	We can save our money and spend it at a later time.	Throughout history money has taken many different forms.
B. Income — Income is earned by producing goods and services.	One or several members of the family must earn money to satisfy needs.	Individuals who contribute to the production process receive a share of the goods and services produced.	The money paid to workers, landowners and material owners is their income.	Income may be received in the form of money, goods or services.

Concept Chart: Economics

B

e	f	g	h	i
Some services that are needed by the people are supplied by the public sector of the economy (government).	People will have higher scales of living as specialization and trade increase.	In order to import goods, a country should have some product it can export.	Goods and services must be exchanged in payment for other goods and services.	Self-sufficient units such as medieval manors had low scales of living.
All economic systems face the problem of scarcity.	The development of transportation compensates for local scarcity.	Specialization increases efficiency.	Scarcity was a problem in past societies as it is now.	People trade with one another in order that they may have more of what they need.
Nations have different monetary systems.	Most of our money supply consists of checking accounts in banks. Checks are a form of credit money.	Credit is more extensively used in the United States than in any other country.	In modern times the trend has been to use more and more forms of private and public credit as money.	The use of money facilitates the division of labor and therefore makes the economy more productive.
An important aspect of income is its purchasing power.	The amount of goods and services a family is able to purchase determines its scale of living.	Real income is the total of goods and services produced by both the private and public sectors of the economy.	Distribution of income is the process of dividing up what has been produced in an interdependent economy.	Taxes are sometimes used to redistribute income.

j	k	l	m	n
The industrial revolution created a wage-earning labor class, a greater degree of specialization and interdependence.	Local industries depend on other areas for factors of production (resources, labor, capital) and markets.	Geographic diversity builds interdependence within and among nations.	The Law of Comparative Advantage prevails: that is, the individual specializes in that area in which he has the greatest advantage or least disadvantage.	The growth of interdependence increases the problems of adjustment for the individual in the society and it also increases the need for coordination through organization — managerial direction and market mechanics.
Money paid in taxes enables the government to bid resources such as labor away from private production to government goods and services.	The economic cost (or opportunity cost) of government goods and services consists of the private goods which are not now produced because of the shift in production resources.	If increased production results from putting unemployed resources to work, the economic cost is nil even though a money cost is paid.	The shipment, sale, or gift of unwanted surpluses from one area to an area where they are scarce increases total economic well-being.	Price is a measure of the relative scarcity and need for a good service or resource.
Money and financial institutions facilitate saving and act as intermediaries for financing capital accumulation.	The value of a dollar is measured by the amount of goods and services it will purchase.	Both inflation and deflation affect the economic well-being of a nation.	Federal Reserve Banks influence the expansion and contraction of the economy by their function as banks for bankers.	The International Monetary Fund is the principal organization in which nations cooperate in regard to international monetary issues.
The GNP (Gross National Product) is one important summary measure of the economic well-being, the activity and growth in the economy, but the concept has limitations.	The GNP is the total money value of goods and services produced in a given year. The major components are consumer goods, gross investment (or the capital goods produced in the period) and government goods and services.	For many uses GNP needs to be corrected for price changes and expressed as GNP per capita.	Since production of goods and services is the fundamental source of income, GNP equals gross national income — i.e., the disposable personal income of consumers, plus the current flow of funds to business available for investment or reinvestment, and tax receipts of government.	In order for GNP to increase, we must not only increase our ability to produce, but our ability and willingness to spend must step with the industry.

D

C. Wealth — Wealth takes many different forms.	Goods (houses, furniture, cars, toys) represent a portion of private wealth.	Wealth yields services (e.g., a bus provides transportation).	Producers' wealth (capital gods) consists of factories, tools and machines used to increase productivity.	New materials, tools and techniques make possible a greater quantity and higher quality of products.
4. The Market Economy Free enterprise assumes freedom to seek economic gain.	People make economic choices whenever they decide how they will save or spend their money.	Consumers determine what is produced in a free economy, considering all of the available alternatives.	Competition within the market economy provides a wide range of choices for the consumer.	Within certain limits business firms are free to choose which goods they will produce.
5. Economic Stability Economic stability is a goal toward which all sectors of an economy strive — that is, to moderate the upswings and downturns in the economy.	Every family needs a steady income to satisfy its basic needs and wants, and a steady income depends on steady employment.	If customers buy less, the factory needs fewer workers which leads to unemployment.	Other causes for unemployment are lack of training and skills, technological changes, shift in demand, new sources of supply, or a decline in total demand for all products (depression or recession).	Families may attempt to resolve the insecurity resulting from sickness, accident, old age, etc. through private and public means.
6. Economic Growth, Change, and Adaptation Economic prosperity and change in the United States are related to the prosperity of and change in the rest of the world.	Workers throughout the world often change jobs.	Geographical locations of employment often change.	The world is rapidly changing from a rural to an urban society.	Products in daily use in a home may come from all over the world.

E

Public wealth consists of goods which yield services for the common good (e.g. schools, dams, libraries, streets, etc.).	Much individual wealth consists of financial claims such as stocks, bonds, bank deposits, etc.	Businessmen use savings (stocks, bonds, surplus capital, bank loans) to buy the capital goods necessary to increase productivity.	Wealth is created from the four factors of production: Land, labor, capital and enterprise.	Resources may become depleted, polluted, damaged or obsolete without proper planning and conservation.
The choice which firms make in regard to what they will produce, how they will produce it, and where and how much of the product they will produce largely determines whether the company will make a profit or loss or succeed or fail.	The entrepreneur or enterprise are factors which bring land, labor and capital together in order to direct production.	Competition and cooperation exist side by side in an interdependent economy.	The legal basis for free enterprise is provided for in the Constitution and federal laws. The right to go into business for oneself, right to own property, and freedom to contract are part of this.	The concept of economic freedom is a dynamic thing which has been subject to change throughout our history.
Some of the various agencies of the Federal Government which seek to promote economic stability include: the Federal Reserve Board, The Council of Economic Advisors, the United States Treasury, Congress, and the Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation.	Private methods to promote family economic stability include: training and skills, insurance, property, savings, investments, family-owned business, etc.	Public agencies which promote family economic stability include: Social Security, Aid to Dependent Children, United Fund, Medicare, Unemployment Compensation, etc.	The Federal Reserve System is the agency which is responsible for maintaining a balance between the growth of the supply of money and the ability of the economy to produce. The Federal Reserve controls the money supply by controlling bank reserves and the availability and cost of credit.	The Council of Economic Advisors advises the President and Congress on the state of the economy and recommends appropriate economic measures for legislation.
Products produced in any country are sold in markets all over the world.	Unskilled laborers are becoming increasingly obsolete in countries which are industrialized.	Many business firms are truly international in their organization and operation.	Competition and markets have taken on global aspects.	Part of increased productivity has led to an increase in leisure time which has created a demand for new goods and services.

F

The modern corporation is an institution which facilitates capital formation.	One important reason that developing nations have a low scale of living is that they lack savings to buy capital goods.	Investment will result in a higher scale of living if it increases productivity.	Accumulation of wealth requires diverting some of current production to future use or gain.	Free flowing investment capital is now and has been important to world development.
Historically, federal laws have fostered and encouraged competition, but at the same time licenses, franchises, patents, copyrights, etc. have tended to limit competition.	The regulation of public utilities is an exception to the general attitude of governmental encouragement of competition.	Government has become increasingly a participant in the market economy. It is competitor and also creator of economic opportunities, for example, Telstar, County Agents.	The increased urbanization of our society has resulted in problems of such a magnitude that the government must assume an increasingly larger role in their solution.	The tremendous growth and subsequent gains of unions have been a response to the changing complexion of industry and attitudes of governmen..
Congress through its fiscal policies (government spending and taxation) attempts to maintain economic stability.	Labor unions seek jobs security for their members (escalator clauses, pensions, seniority rights, guaranteed annual wages, etc.).	Business strives for economic security through diversification, research and development, accumulation of reserves and surplus, etc.	Farmers attempt to promote economic stability through cooperatives, farm organizations and governmental programs.	Policies which an individual uses to promote economic stability for the family unit will not necessarily be effective when generalized to the economy as a whole.
The level of production and the present scale of living are directly related. Their progress is interdependent.	World trade is a way of allocating resources more economically to the advantage of all.	The Law of Comparative Advantage prevails: a society specializes in the area in which it has the greatest advantage or least disadvantage.	In some countries government planners make most of the critical economic decisions for the country.	Most of the people of the world have not known capitalism as Americans have and have difficulty understanding this concept in terms of their own experience.

CONCEPT CHART: GEOGRAPHY

Conc

Major Concepts in Geography	Elaborations				
	a	b	c	d	e
1. Spatial Distribution The collection of locations of a set of similar physical or cultural phenomena constitutes a spatial distribution.					
A. Pattern — The configuration of similar phenomena over an area forms a pattern.	Every object has a geographic location.	Objects can be identified in terms of their shape, composition and direction from similar objects.	Like objects can be grouped and their geographic locations examined.	Geographic locations often reflect patterns.	Maps are tools for identifying patterns
B. Density — The number of objects in a specified area determines density.	The greater number of objects per given area increases density.	Maps can reveal density through color or shading.	A city has more people per square mile than a rural area.	Density of most phenomena varies from region to region.	Sampling techniques can be useful in determining density
C. Dispersion — The spread of objects over an area characterizes dispersion.	It may be undesirable to introduce the concept of dispersion until later levels of maturation.				
2. Areal Association Understanding spatial distribution involves the correlation of the characteristics.	The locations of a set of objects may be related to the locations of a different set of objects in the area.	Population patterns often relate to physical elements.	Mountains can be related to plains, plateaus and hills.	Wind and ocean currents are closely related.	Cities often exist where there are bodies of water.
A. Positive and Negative Areal Association — The relationship between spatial characteristics may be either positive or negative.					

ept Chart: Geography

f B	g	h	i
Physical patterns identify lakes, rivers, oceans, seas and bays.	Climate zones can be identified by, among other things, temperature, precipitation and vegetation phenomena.	Wind and ocean currents have definite patterns.	Topographical configurations, e.g., mountainous areas, have distinguishable physical and cultural patterns in comparison to plains areas.
Density may radically change with time.	The density of wildlife is different around the world and changes with time.	Land ownership patterns may reveal population density.	The density of the atmosphere at various elevations is significant.
Cities often exist near other cities.	Population and land use are related.	Population patterns are associated with densities of other geographic factors.	Topography and transportation systems may be related.

j	k	l	m	n
Land use patterns usually are clearly identifiable on any given physical landscape.	Patterns of human geography are often unstable.	Mapped patterns vary with different projections.	Many patterns of social phenomena, e.g., racial, religious and language patterns, are not coterminous.	Changes in technology revolutionize pattern differentiation.
Surface rock density varies over the earth.	Mapping techniques and various projections may emphasize or distort our knowledge of density.			
Topography and climate are related.	Cultural factors and land use are related.	The location of manufacturing activities is often associated with, among other things, availability of labor, markets, raw materials and transportation.	Economic and cultural systems may be associated with densities of population, resources and technology.	Patterns of political control may be associated with geographic pattern and density.

B. Interpretation — Explaining one characteristic with another is used when a positive or negative association appears to occur in an area.	The location of a school is related to the presence of children in an area.	A tomato farm is located where there is an adequate supply of water.	Resorts are often developed to take advantage of the surrounding geographic features.	Patterns of desert area can help explain population patterns in the world.
3. Spatial Interaction A. Movements and Connections — Movements of people and goods, and communication between places are aspects of spatial interaction.	A map of a school may reveal patterns of movement.	The number of roads in a country may indicate the amount of travel.	More highways and roads exist near cities.	People and goods move from one part of the community to another.
B. Resultant Change — Spatial interaction may bring about changes from place to place.	The building of a road into a forest may help develop a lumber industry.	Communication between countries may increase business.	The building of the transcontinental railroads helped to open the West to settlement.	Population centers often develop along lines of communications.
4. Diffusion A. Transmission — Diffusion involves the transmission or spread of an idea or object.	Ideas, ways of behavior, and modes of dress spread from one part of the community to another.	The use of certain eating utensils may be prevalent throughout a continental area.	Farming methods may have similarity within regions.	The idea of irrigation was passed from one culture to another.
B. Rate and Communication — Diffusion takes place slowly or rapidly and is dependent on communication.	Ideas often are shared by neighbors.	Effective communications enhance diffusion.	The introduction and rapid spread of barbed wire in the American West illustrates diffusion.	American corn was not introduced extensively into Europe until a century after adoption in the colonies.

E

The locations of mineral deposits sometimes explain population clusters.	The farming of perishables often takes place where systems of rapid transportation are accessible.	Some industries may locate where markets are available.	Wind and ocean currents influence climatic conditions.	The elimination of one living organism from the environment may increase the existence of others.
Movement of people and goods takes place between communities.	Lines of communication can be mapped to indicate the amount of traffic and load.	There often is an interaction between wind and ocean currents.	The relationship between mountains, rivers and deltas can reveal a land movement.	The migration of animals is related to climatic zones.
The development of the airplane has influenced many communities.	Transportation costs in the movement of raw materials or finished products may influence industrial sites.	Natural disasters and cataclysms may sever or divert traditional transportation routes and change population patterns.	The building of a railroad may divert river-oriented routes of commerce.	The spacing of villages may be related to available transportation and travel time.
Farming methods applied to similar crops obviously may differ in countries separated by vast geographical areas, but they also may differ within a single country.	Political systems in many parts of the world were patterned after European governments.	Diffusion may be very selective from area to area.	The impact that one society may have upon another involves diffusion.	Technical assistance programs often are aimed toward diffusion of ideas and techniques.
International commerce enhances product adoption.	Diffusion may be more rapid in densely populated regions.	Diffusion of cultural characteristics may take place more rapidly along established trade routes.	Civilizations diffused along routes of commerce and military capability.	Physical barriers such as mountains and oceans greatly influences diffusion.

F

The location of certain industries may be determined by cultural tradition.

The introduction of technology and modernization may increase intensive land use.

Topographical configurations may be helpful in explaining direction and influences of rivers.

Weather is affected by the movement of air masses.

The movement of wind, water and ice influences topographical configuration.

Movements and connections within the physical world may be influenced by man.

Political factors may interdict lines of communication and lead to new ones.

Transportation systems may create the need for expanding transportation systems.

The movement of primitive man was an attempt to adapt to his environment, but the environment now is being influenced by man.

The resultant change from spatial interaction may produce serious social, economic and political problems.

A transmitted technique may undergo change.

Diffusion may be the crucial factor in economic modernization.

Diffusion may lead to economic and political alliances.

Diffusion may not always be advantageous.

Proximity alone will not bring diffusion.

Wars enhance diffusion.

Strong cultural factors such as religion or ideology may retard diffusion despite fine communication.

CONCEPT CHART: HISTORY

A

Major Concepts in History	Elaborations			
	a	b	c	d
1. Change and Time History is a record of peoples and groups seen over periods of time. Institutions and civilizations undergo modifications, sometimes through evolution, at other times by revolutionary methods.	Individuals change physically and mentally through their lifetime. Their families do, also.	Although each stage of growth is unique, it is an outgrowth of a previous stage.	Everything, even the most commonplace, has a "history" or developing story.	Man needs to accustom himself to change because change is universal.
2. Human Experience Human experience is a continuous and interrelated web. Events are dependent on previous situations, and ideas come from earlier ones. Man is to a degree dependent on the past, but can free himself from it.	Individuals are a product of the past, of their family, and through it, of the human race. They have a cultural history as well.	The web of our customs, including holidays and many ways of thinking, are a result of our past history.	Customs and traditions are handed down from one generation to another, unless the family gets accustomed to new ways by entering a different culture.	A community has its roots in the past.
3. Response to Change History is a record of man's answers to the challenges of each period in his history. The successful accomplishment of each response leads to further problems.	Not all change is "progress." What benefits one may hurt another person or group.	Individuals who understand how problems came about are more capable of solving them.	Growth presents new challenges requiring responses. People resist growth for both good and bad reasons.	Citizens are responsible for creative responses to challenges through continuing adjustment of the governmental machinery.

Concept Chart: History

e	f	g	h	i
People from varying backgrounds make contributions to every community.	Man has had to adapt to new environments, but in turn modifies them.	Cultures change with different rates and degrees; but all cultures experience change in some form.	We should study the strengths of various institutions (social, political, religious, etc.) in order to assess the rate and value of each element in the change.	A democratic government allows more people to influence the rate and type of change.
Some customs and traditions become obsolete and cease to be creative forces but continue to be observed.	People within a community share common traditions, experiences and problems. This sharing often is based on historical precedents.	The present experiences of any group are based on earlier decisions and encounters with problems.	Communities and cultures tend to influence and benefit other communities and cultures by their gifts and examples.	It is possible to compare and contrast cultures so as to discern how each has solved its most important problems.
Each of the several cultures has responded differently to the challenges of its time, and each detail to be studied.	Although people in different cultures do not agree on what constitutes progress, the history of the world is a record of many steps made toward common goals.	People who live in established communities or institutions tend to resist change but often find change forced on them by the way they live.	The rise or decline of a group depends on its response to challenge.	New nations which have rising expectations are creating problems of international importance.

j	k	l	m	n
Successful experiences with change bring about a willingness for further changes.	Change can be brought about by new theories of science and technology.	Change frequently is impeded by custom, tradition and conservative groups or individuals.	Change comes through alterations in traditional patterns as economic, social and political transformations take place.	Individuals and groups of all sorts initiate change by making creative breakthroughs in their environment.
All human institutions are influenced by past experiences.	People are influenced by values, ideals and inherited institutions as well as by their environment.	Group experience, such as "national character," is affected by political, economic and cultural experiences.	Behavioral patterns are learned and may be habitual in nature.	A study of history leads to a concern for and an interest in movements for reform in those parts of institutions which make for stability.
Many people believe that technology and science have progressed faster than social reforms.	There is an increasing complexity of organized society.	Conflict and difference of opinion are necessary parts of the human experience.	History is in part the record of both successful and unsuccessful solutions to problems.	Although an historical perspective does not lead automatically to prediction, it does present alternatives on which decisions can be made.

4. Consequences Actions and ideas result in other activities, some of which can be foreseen, many of which are unpredictable. Analogies between past and present give valuable insight into social change.	Words and actions have consequences.	Groups and individuals are bound by laws and rules, old and new customs from part of every culture.	Decisions made and institutions developed in the remote or less remote past often have great consequences in the present.	Group decisions may affect the well-being of the individual.
5. Diversity Individual cultures and subcultures have evolved different values and beliefs. Although it is difficult and improper to use the same yardstick to measure other cultures, each individual culture historically has done so.	One person's values and reactions may differ from those of another age or time.	The individual and the group may benefit from studying vastly different people.	In a democracy every person is important and has in theory equal protection under law. But this position has been gained through great hardship for many in the past.	Individuals and groups have differed throughout history, but judgments can be made as to their "rightness" and "wrongness" as we make valuations.
6. Interpretation Although individuals and groups see problems in relation to their own experiences, the historian tries to interpret history as he sees it from the evidence available.	The individual may be limited by his experience unless he exercises his historical imagination.	Each person and group needs to interpret the past but should do so on the basis of objective analysis.	Our interpretations are aided by scholarly materials such as books and articles.	We can evaluate the products of mass media by our own experience and our reference to the original sources.

E

Our present decisions have their origins in earlier ideas and programs.	Advances in civilization often begin with cultural clash or encounters with new and different ways of living.	Genuine social change begins as an attack on genuine social problems.	A knowledge of the problems solved by people in the past can help us solve present problems more intelligently.	The wise use of power is imperative in an interdependent world.
Freedom and rights of the individual should not violate the freedom and rights of others.	Different societies have evolved various concepts of the dignity and worth of the human being.	Freedom and responsibility are interrelated; responsibility implies the limits of individual freedom.	Every society needs some authority. We should look for that authority in the organization.	Man's beliefs and views of life are influenced in part by his cultural and physical environment.
We should pay attention to historical records which exist, if we wish to see what other people have thought.	Records, printed documents, and artifacts provide information on the accomplishments of mankind.	History involves decisions as to what to include or exclude as well as method of interpretation.	Facts do not always represent truth since truth depends on how facts are presented and interpreted.	History requires the use of both primary and secondary sources although primary sources are more important since they give first hand accounts of events.

Citizens in a democracy are responsible for domestic and international policies through their vote and informal pressure.

Many causations of historical events are complex in nature.

The affairs and concerns of one part of the world are reflected in the actions of other areas of the world.

All decisions, including that of inaction, involve risks, and historical investigation shows what some of the alternatives and results of these actions may be.

Policies should be determined in view of the ideal and of the necessary means which they involve. Means may corrupt ends, as history seems to indicate.

Every culture has made contributions to mankind, as has every age in the history of the human family. Thus, there are really no "dark ages," no "arrested civilizations."

Those civilizations and cultures which have allowed for the greatest diversity have contributed most to mankind.

Our world of the moment is but a passing phase of the world of the past and the possibilities of the future which presses upon us every moment.

Mature people build their lives and institutions with regard to the past and the record of successes and failures which it presents.

"History" is a discipline which shows us that we must make commitments and be judged by them.

"Facts" are susceptible to varying interpretations according to the point of view of the historian or student of history.

Therefore, each interpreter is under the necessity of revealing his biases.

Synthesizing, testing, and interpretation of facts to arrive at the truth is essential no matter how difficult it may be.

How we look at events is influenced by our past experiences and cultural orientation to life.

Hence, the duty of historical accuracy and honesty is incumbent upon every observer and actor.

CONCEPT CHART: POLITICAL SCIENCE

A

Major Concepts in Political Science	Elaborations			
	a	b	c	d
1. Interdependence People are interdependent.	People depend on each other for many necessities of life.	Interdependency exists in families, communities and nations.	Increasing specialization of function is associated with complex, technologically developed societies.	Specialization of function makes interdependence both more complicated and more difficult to achieve.
2. Emergence of Politics Political action emerges when men make binding decisions on the whole of society.	The line between political and non-political activity is hard to draw.	In many non-political activities men can coordinate their efforts without central direction.	In families many activities are governed by simple habit and tradition.	Crisis situations may call for central control of activities.
3. The Political System The political system is the part of the society that makes such binding decisions.	Not everyone in society participates in political decisions.	The "government" is usually the central part of any political system.	The government is not the only part of society which participates in making laws and policies (pressure groups, etc.).	Political leaders are chosen in a variety of ways — inheritance, appointment, and selection by the people in the society (election).
4. Power and Authority Power is the energy of the political system; authority is legitimate power.	Most people follow rules in society by force of habit and conditioning.	People who violate the rules of the political system are subject to a variety of types of punishments.	The type and degree of force which enable the political system to back up its rules, distinguish it from many other organizations in the society, although these too use force.	Violators of traffic laws may be arrested and put in jail.

Concept Chart: Political Science

e	f	g	h	i
Interdependence may be limited by lack of resources, social tradition, language or geographical barriers.	Inventions may increase the possibility of interdependence (e.g., the radio and telephone).	Interdependence has never been perfectly achieved in human societies.	Interdependence is not necessarily a "natural" condition of human society.	Conflict and competition often characterize human societies.
Serious scarcity of food or water may require groups to ration their supplies.	External threats may cause men to join together for common defense.	Regular procedures may be established for making binding decisions on society for protection, health or improvement.	Laws which seem to be limiting often are liberating.	The county health officer may enforce a quarantine on all animals to prevent the spread of rabies.
In ancient societies hereditary leaders or religious priests often made the laws.	In some early New England colonies citizens met to debate and make laws for themselves.	In parts of ancient China war lords made laws.	During wartime military leaders may make important decisions under civilian control.	The U.S. Constitution defines the boundaries of the American political system.
Young men may be compelled to serve in the army or navy.	People are required to pay taxes.	In most societies the authority of the political system is most effective if a majority of people support the system or passively accept its authority.	In some societies the decisions of the political system are forced upon the people by military and police power, but the decisions are very difficult to sustain.	Some primitive peoples obey priests out of fear that the gods will punish them for disobedience.

j	k	l	m	n
People disagree about how important it is to depend on other people and other societies.	Some individuals, families and small societies have succeeded in being highly self-sufficient.	Developing nations often require outside capital and technology to become self-sufficient.	Nations with high living standards often depend upon the resources of poorer nations to maintain their standards.	In a condition of interdependence some people may derive more benefit than others from the relationship.
Binding decisions may not be made all at once; they may be the product of a series of lesser decisions made by many individuals.	Decisions which bind a whole group are usually justified as being in the best interest of the group.	A few individuals may succeed in committing an entire society to action, as in the American Revolution.	Disagreement over the right to make binding decisions is a central characteristic of most societies.	Laws and presidential directives are examples of political decisions which are enforceable by public authority.
Some nations, such as England, have no written constitution, but they have an effective governing system.	Political systems have many different forms; monarchies, dictatorships, oligarchies, republics and democracy.	Political systems may regulate only a few things (a limited state) or practically everything (a totalitarian state).	A political system is shaped by economic, cultural, social, geographical and philosophical forces.	In the U.S. our political system is generally described as a representative democracy.
Fear of physical torture, confinement or social ostracism may produce conformity to rules.	Nationalism and emotional fervor, as in wars, may increase the power of the political system over the citizens.	Power is not a quantity; it arises out of the relationships among men.	Power is not necessarily used up; it may increase with use.	Democratic philosophers have argued that the power of the state must ultimately reside in the people.

D

5. Change and Stability Political systems change and try to remain stable.	Changes outside political systems require changes within systems to prevent serious disruption.	Political systems must work out the basic problems of distribution of goods, communication with the people, and representation of the people in order to remain stable.	Systems which fail to meet basic demands of their people may be overthrown violently.	America's constitution has been in effect longer than any other written national constitution now in use.
6. Interacting Systems Political systems interact in conflict, cooperation or indifference.	Conflict exists at all levels of human organization.	Cooperation exists at all levels of human organization.	Schools and local governments may disagree over proper levels of support for schools. They also may cooperate harmoniously.	Many theories exist as to why international conflict occurs. No single factor explains it all.
7. Political Ethics Ethical standards undergird political systems.	Societies require some agreement on basic rules of moral conduct in order to function.	Schools function only when reasonable trust and confidence exist between students and teachers.	Political ethics generally are shaped by the ethical standards of the whole society.	In some developing countries the custom of bribing public officials undermines public trust in constituted authority.
8. Rights, Liberties, and Obligations Rights, liberties and obligations define the individual in relation to the political system.	Classical philosophers said men entered into a "social contract" in creating the political system which defined the mutual rights and obligations of the citizen and the state.	Many men believe, as did John Locke, that the state merely protects rights which are natural and unalienable in men.	Some men believe that the political system creates the rights and liberties of citizens.	In some primitive societies the idea of rights apart from the state or society is nonexistent.

When competing systems within a country over a prolonged period of time fail to adjust, civil war results.	E The American system has undergone gradual but profound changes.	The Constitution does not allow for the popular election of the U.S. President. Contemporary practice and suggested reforms point toward the election of the President by popular vote.	Rapid growth of population places a strain on a political system.	Economic depression may bring about the collapse of a government in power, and of the whole political system.
Competition of different states for authority over the same area may lead to diplomatic conflict and ultimately to war.	Karl Marx said that economic competition of capitalist states led to wars. Non-communists say the causes of war are more complex.	Competition between France and England in Africa led to colonial wars.	A breakdown of international and regional alliances preceded World War I.	Instability in national economic systems produced an international crisis in the 1930s.
A system of popular control requires the honest casting and counting of ballots.	Government officials face difficult ethical problems (e.g., when they are asked to do favors for people who give them campaign contributions).	The necessity of keeping some information from the public raises important questions for the government official.	Many philosophers have agreed that the possession of political power will corrupt men.	Most democratic governments change leaders periodically to prevent excessive power and corruption from developing.
In many societies not all citizens have the same rights, liberties and obligations.	Peasants in China often paid most of the taxes and had almost no political rights.	Slaves in some societies, including our own in the past, were regarded as property with no rights or liberties.	Revolts and wars in many societies were often outgrowths of frustrated men who felt they were treated unjustly.	After the creation of the new American Consitution in 1789, leaders drew up a "Bill of Rights" specifying rights and liberties in detail.

F

The Industrial Revolution placed long-term stresses on European political systems.	Revolution signifies a fundamental change in the political structure. A *coup d'etat* merely signifies a change of leadership.	Expanding suffrage and equal representation may tend to stabilize formerly undemocratic regimes, though not in all cases.	Fear may produce temporary stability but often deters evolutionary change.	The American political system has changed by constitutional amendment, by new laws and by changing unwritten customs.
Interstate compacts attempt to coordinate state activities within the American federal system.	The United Nations attempts to coordinate and harmonize national systems.	Nations carry on many forms of trade and cooperation without an international organization to guide their efforts.	Serious disagreements exist about the possibility or desirability of creating a true world government.	The U.S. passed from a period of relative isolation before 1940 to one of active international involvement all over the world.
No conclusive evidence has shown that power in itself produces unethical behavior.	In the 19th century victorious politicians gave public jobs to their supporters as political rewards.	In the U.S. and many other nations a "merit system" was designed to give public jobs only to those fully qualified.	Political leaders are often torn between two "good" choices rather than a simple choice between right and wrong.	The question of whether ethical conduct can be established by legislation is hotly debated, as in the recent civil rights law.
These rights and liberties were drawn from the thought of many American and European philosophers and from the experience of the new nation.	Liberties exercised without commensurate obligations have at times produced political chaos.	Citizens are sometimes caught in a conflict of obligations to two political systems (e.g., to the state and national governments).	The judicial systems of most nations try to resolve conflicts over rights, liberties and obligations.	International law embodies both rights and obligations of sovereign states in dealing with each other.

CONCEPT CHART: SOCIOLOGY

Major Concepts in Sociology	Elaborations			
	a	b	c	d
1. Social Interaction A. Interaction — People learn all characteristically human behaviors through group interaction.	Interaction occurs when the actions of one person cause an action in another person or persons.	Without social interaction there would be no social ife nor society.	Interaction may be either physical (involving physical contact) or symbolic (involving communication).	Human beings in social contact produce some pattern of social interaction.
B. Groups — Man is by nature a gregarious creature. To understand him, one must understand the various groups with which he associates.	A group may be defined as two or more persons who are interacting and are together physically. The level of interaction may be very low.	Classification of people who do not meet the criteria of a group are called categories (race, sex, nationality, profession).	Some groups, such as the family, neighborhood play group, and congeniality group, are rather permanent in nature.	Some groups are temporary and may last for only a few hours or in some cases a few minutes (such as crowds, mobs, audiences, etc.).
2. Culture A. Culture — Every society develops a culture of its own even though some of the ideas are borrowed from other cultures.	Culture is shared, learned behavior.	Man lives in social groups of two or more individuals.	Much of the culture of any society is dependent upon its geographical location, abundance and the availability of natural resources.	Much of our culture is created through man-made objects and institutions.
B. Social Norms — The culture provides the norms — "the rules of the game" — by which social life is structured.	The individual is expected to abide by the rules. No one can do as he pleases without some form of punishment or lack of acceptance by society.	Every person must compromise his own desires and behavior with those of other members of primary and secondary groups.	Different groups of people develop different ways of acting, thinking and believing.	The group enforces its norms by the use of sanctions (rewards or punishments) used to control the behavior of the individual.
3. Social Organization A. Population — Individual lives are affected by a population's size, rate, growth, and age and sex distribution changes.	Where people live is closely related to geography and cultural factors.	The population of the United States is largely a product of immigration.	The population of the United States is rapidly becoming urban.	The population of the United States is very mobile (one-fifth of the total population moves each year).

Concept Chart: Sociology

e	f B	g	h	i
Cooperation occurs when two or more persons work together to achieve a goal which will be shared in common.	Competition occurs when two or more persons oppose each other to achieve a goal which only one can obtain.	Conflict occurs when two or more persons clash, placing more emphasis on hurting the opponent than on achieving the goal.	Accommodation is a process by which conflicting parties or groups agree to stop the conflict.	Assimilation is the blending of two previously distince groups into one unified group.
The in-group is a group toward which we have a sense of solidarity, loyalty, friendliness, and cooperation (a feeling of belonging).	The out-group is a group toward which we feel a sense of indifference, avoidance, prejudice, disgust or conflict.	Primary groups are small, intimate, face-to-face natural groups in which the person is important for himself (as the family).	Secondary groups are groups which have face-to-face relationships but lack the intimacy of the primary group.	Clubs are formally organized friendship or congeniality groups which are multi-purpose (members share several activities together).
Much of our culture has been borrowed from other societies.	The fundamental needs or functions of a society are provided for by its social structures which we call social institutions.	These institutions serve, preserve and transmit the culture.	There is a high correlation between the degree of education of the mass population and the complexity of the culture.	There is a sort of unity or harmony which pervades the life of most societies.
Sub-cultural groups often establish norms of behavior which may be alien or antagonistic to the larger culture.	Groups structure the social life of individual persons.	Individual personality reflects and influences the cultural context within which it exists.	Interaction establishes modes of conduct and creates social life.	Values are feelings, for the most part unconscious, which the individual has in regard to what is right, good or important. The individual's behavior is greatly influenced by his values.
The size and density of population affect the degree of specialization in a society. Higher density of population produces more specialization.	Overpopulation occurs when more people live in an area than can be supported adequately by its resources.	Overpopulation may affect international relations as crowded nations seek to expand their territory.	The size and density of a population affects the complexity of the culture: as population increases the culture becomes more complex.	A movement of people from one area to another causes social change in both areas.

j	k	l	m	n
Stratification is the process by which people are ranked in social classes.	Socialization is the process by which the individual learns the social and cultural requirements of his society.	Personality, social structure, and culture exist as a dynamic interacting system.	Groups exert social control over the individual members of the group through the use of sanctions (rewards or punishments).	It is possible for the individual more clearly to see and appreciate cultures other than his own if he applies the principle of "cultural relativity" (the realization that any one of several cultural practices may satisfy the needs of a given society).
Organizations are formally organized but have only one basic purpose, and are therefore, often called special interest groups.	Organizations usually expand to such a degree that they are made up of many smaller groups which interact within themselves	Every society consists of smaller social units such as social classes, racial and ethnic groups, communities, clubs, associations and neighborhoods.	Because of ethnocentrism it is often difficult for a person to see another culture in a valid perspective and with objectivity.	
The acceptance of a custom or belief merely because it is a part of the culture, without knowledge of the facts or principles on which it is based, is a cultural bias.	Cultural bias gives societies stability and unity because most members of the society accept the present culture without question.	Culture has both material (tools, implements and weapons) and nonmaterial (customs, beliefs and attitudes) objects.		
Folkways are norms which are not considered to be extremely important, or norms which if violated are not severely punishable.	Mores are norms which are considered to be extremely important. Violation of mores brands one as immoral and may lead to serious punishment.	Taboos are negative mores — the "thou shalt nots" of behavior.	Laws are formalized norms enforced by the power of the state.	Social behavior at variance with the general norms of society is one manifestation of social disorganization.
The age composition of a population greatly affects the culture. (Children need schools; older persons need retirement homes and increased medical care, etc.).	The rate of increase of a population is determined by both the birth and death rates. Many factors influence both rates: wars, famine, medical technology, economic prosperity.	The "population explosion" is due largely to the lower death rate. Lower infant mortality rates, better medical care, and greater longevity are significant factors.	An increase in population tends to stimulate economic growth as additional goods and services are needed for the new members.	Life expectancy may be affected by social class status, race, sex, place of residence, marital status, amount of income, and occupation.

B. Social Classes — All members of a society are ranked into levels of prestige and power which are called social classes.	People within societies classify one another into categories according to various criteria and then rank these categories in order from higher to lower.	The criteria of class status vary from culture to culture.	Some criteria of class status in the United States are occupation, education, amount of income, family background, place or residence, and race or nationality.	The "open" class system — one in which the individual may move from one class to another — is an ideal of democracy.
C. Human Ecology — Man's social relationships and behavior are affected by his spatial distribution in geographic space.	Human ecology is that part of sociology which studies the spatial distribution of human groups and institutions.	The ecologist regards spatial relations as an index of social relations. He studies the spatial structuring of human activities in order to learn about the social structure.	The two basic types of ecological areas are the rural or folk communities and the urban areas or cities. *Some characteristics of folk or rural communities are: 1. They are relatively small in size and isolated. 2. There is a minimal division of labor 3. The families tend to be close knit. 4. Social control is accomplished by informal means.	
D. Institutions — All societies develop social institutions which may be defined as complex sets of folkways, mores, and laws which are integrated around the major functions (or needs) of the society.	All cultures have social institutions.	Societies develop specific institutions to carry out the basic functions in a society.	The function of reproduction of the population is carried out through the institution of the family.	The function of socialization of the new members of the population carried out by the family and the institution of education.
4. Social Dynamics A. Social Change — All societies are in constant change.	Whenever two or more people interact, some change takes place in each person.	Individuals are constantly changing; however, change is very slow and gradual. Since societies are made up of individual people, societies are in a state of constant change.	Most new discoveries and inventions bring some change in the society.	Whenever two or more separate cultures come into contact with each other, some change usually takes place in each culture.
B. Social Disorganization — No society is completely harmonious: some form of social disorganization is present in all societies.	No social norm is always obeyed. No individual conforms to every norm.	The greater the number of individuals that vary from the social norm, the greater the degree of disorganization.	Areas of disorganization are called social problems.	A social problem exists when the following criteria are met:

Discrimination has prevented some minorities from achieving upward vertical mobility.

E Many racial and ethnic minorities occupy the lower levels of class structure.

A person's class status affects his "life chances" for success. (Life chances include education, health, income, occupation, life expectancy, etc.).

A person's class status affects his style of life; i.e., the way a person lives, the clothes he wears, the automobile he drives, and the luxuries he obtains.

Rigid classes in which one cannot move up or down to another class are called castes.

Some characteristics of the American social structure which cause a relatively high rate of upward social mobility are immigration, mechanization, and differential fertility.

5. Most groups are primary; a few groups are secondary.
6. People have homogenous values and behavior patterns.
7. People are conservative and tend to resist new ideas.
8. Most relationships are face-to-face.
9. Usually a wide span in annual income of families is not present.
10. Land use is not specialized or restricted.

*Some characteristics of urban areas or cities are:

1. A large number of people and a high density of population are evident.
2. A very complex division of labor (specialization) exists.
3. The family is less important and family ties are weaker than in folk communities.
4. Social control is formal and carried out by institutions.
5. A large number of varied secondary groups but few primary groups are characteristic.
6. People have heterogeneous values and behavior patterns.
7. New innovations are more readily accepted than in folk communities.
8. The individual is less important for himself; he gains importance as a member of a group or category.

The function of maintaining a sense of purpose is provided for by the institution of religion.

The production and distribution of goods and services is controlled by the economic institution.

Maintaining order within the society and protecting it from other societies is the function of the institution of government.

The functions of institutions are observable (either that which is intended or recognized).

Institutions require machinery, both material and nonmaterial, for their operation.

Institutions are characterized by division of labor and specialization.

Wars tend to increase the speed with which cultures change because interaction and interventions increase.

Natural causes, such as tornadoes, earthquakes, floods, plagues, etc., usually bring some change in the culture.

As the cultural base increases, change becomes more rapid since each new invention may lead to others through combination or rearrangement.

The material aspects of culture usually change more rapidly than the nonmaterial aspects. This is the concept of cultural lag.

When members of a population move from one place to another, they cause certain changes in both areas involved — e.g., nation to nation, east to west, farm to city, city to suburb, etc.

Social movements — e.g., abolition, women's suffrage, civil rights, religion, etc. — usually cause changes in the culture.

1. There is a difference between what should exist and what does exist as perceived by the members of the society.

2. A sufficient number of people are aware of and affected by the situation which exists.

3. The situation is capable of change.

4. The situation can be changed with collective action by members of the society.

Social problems may be produced when the material aspects of a culture advance more rapidly than the nonmaterial aspects.

Social problems may be produced when the values of one group are in conflict with the values of another group or groups.

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9. Land use is very specialized and restricted. (Industry, retail stores, apartments, low income homes are all found in specific areas.)
10. Segregation is present; racial and ethnic groups live in specific sections of the city.
11. Cities often are surrounded by suburbs.

Institutions are relatively permanent.

Institutions are conservative and tend to resist change but are forced to change in response to new conditions.

Institutions represent an ideal pattern of social relationship.

Every individual is expected to play some role in each of the institutions of his society.

Laws passed by legislative bodies can cause cultural change if they are accepted and enforced by the society.

Attitudes, values, and the basic interests of the people in a society affect the speed, amount and direction of change.

Social changes often bring about some disorganization in a society when different aspects of it change at different rates. (There are many other causes of social disorganization.)

Changes usually are met with resistance by a portion of the members of a society.

Social problems can be solved only by changing basic social institutions.

Glossary of Terms

Many social studies terms have multiple meanings and need to be defined within the context of particular literature. The following are operational definitions as used in the curriculum guide.

Acculturation — The process of cultural change in which more or less continuous contact between two or more culturally distinct groups results in one group taking over elements of the culture of the other group or groups. The term also designates the resulting state.

Affective Domain — One of the classifications of educational objectives. The objectives in this classification describe changes in interests, attitudes and values, and the development of appreciations and adequate adjustment.

Anomie [Anomy] — The term may be used in different, though related ways: (1) personal disorganization of the sort that results in a disoriented or lawless individual, with little reference to the rigidity of the social structure or the character of its norms; (2) social situations in which the norms themselves are in conflict, and the individual runs into trouble in his efforts to conform to contradictory requirements; (3) a social situation that contains no norms and one that is the contrary of society.

Anthropology — The social science discipline that is built around a cultural approach in studying various groups of people.

Articulation — A term used in curriculum development referring to continuity and communication across and between lower and upper levels of instruction.

Attitudes — A term referring to acquired tendencies to respond in certain ways to certain situations, persons, events or ideas.

Behavioral Objectives — Instructional objectives prepared in terms that clearly identify the changes desired in the student as an outcome of the instruction.

Case Study Method — This method consists of a mode of analysis which views any social unit as a whole, such as an individual, family, institution, association or a society. The variables relevant in a given case make it possible to develop an understanding of a class or type of phenomena by the full description and detailed analysis of one or a series of cases belonging to that class.

Cognitive Domain — One of the classifications of educational objectives. The objectives in this classification range from those which emphasize simple recall to actually combining, synthesizing and developing intellectual abilities.

Concept — An idea or notion represented by a word or term standing for a class or group of things, which may range from simple ideas to complex abstractions.

Critical Thinking — A careful, persistent and active consideration of any belief, value system or formation of knowledge. It is a process of validation where truth is determined in light of the evidence that supports it and in terms of the conclusions that can be generated from it.

Current Affairs — A term including both events and issues that is broader in scope than either word taken singly.

Current Event — Something that is happening or has happened recently. It may be significant or trivial.

Current Issue — This implies a degree of controversy concerning a contemporary problem that may or may not be resolved at a future time.

Cybernetic System — A system is a collection of parts organized into a whole for a given purpose. A cybernetic system includes a self-regulating, feedback mechanism which automatically adjusts performance according to the standards that are established.

Debriefing — The term is usually associated with simulation material and is a systematic exploration of the big ideas and relationships that students experienced while involved in a simulation. It can be applied to any process that examines a learning activity after it is completed to clarify the major understandings inherent in the student behavior.

Decision-Making — The dynamic process of interaction among all participants who determine a particular policy choice. Decision-making studies focus on all factors relevant to a policy choice.

Deductive Inquiry — A teaching strategy in which the teacher leads students from general or universal principles to their specific applications. In concept teaching it occurs when a teacher presents a concept label and students are asked to distinguish between examples and non-examples of the concept, thus determining its attributes.

Deductive Reasoning — Applying a known generalization to other situations.

Didactic Strategy — A teaching strategy that employs a direct explanation of a topic or theme. It is commonly used in a lecture, film or reading where conveying information is the teacher's major objective.

Discipline — A recognized body of knowledge with its own method of inquiry, method of proof and unique structure.

Discovery Method — A teaching strategy that involves pupils in the process of thinking things through and determining things for themselves. Students are encouraged to draw plausible inferences from evidence presented.

Economics — The social science discipline that concerns itself with the study of production, distribution and consumption of goods and services.

Enculturation — The conscious or unconscious conditioning occurring within a learning process whereby the person, as child and adult, achieves competence in the culture.

Expository — An approach where the teacher dominates in the instructional process.

Generalization — A statement or theory which describes some relationship among concepts. It involves a statement of some principle that has wide application.

Geography — The social science discipline that deals with the study of the interrelationship of man and his physical environment.

History — The social science discipline concerned with the study, recording and examination of man's activities in the past.

Hypothesis — A testable assertion, statement or proposition about the relationships between two or more phenomena in the field of inquiry. It can be proved or disproved through supportive data.

Inductive Inquiry — A teaching strategy in which the students are taken from the specific to the general. In concept teaching, inductive inquiry occurs when students are asked to observe particular instances or samples and, from the patterns they discover, group and label the data into categories. After the concepts are developed, students can make generalizations and applications around it.

Inductive Reasoning — A mental skill wherein a learner sees a number of items, events or phenomena and reasons that each fall into a particular pattern.

Inquiry Approach — A mode of investigation which rests on a particular technique or strategy that encourages students to manipulate data, raise questions, seek solutions and thereby determine answers for themselves.

Interdisciplinary Approach — A teaching strategy which builds a social studies program, course, or learning opportunity by drawing upon the structure, information and conclusions of more than one, and often all of the social science disciplines (history, geography, sociology, economics, anthropology and political science).

Jurisprudential Approach — This teaching strategy uses a special type of case study method. It is an attempt to clarify and perhaps reconcile or resolve different points of view by examining the facts of the case as well as the values and argumentative strategies. Controversial public issues are analyzed.

Mode of Inquiry — The process of thinking and investigating within specific disciplines.

Module — A unit of instruction that deals with a set of ideas and skills related to a particular aspect of instruction. The module can be divided into short segments, sequentially arranged to provide for individualized instruction.

Multi-Learning — A teaching strategy that utilizes a variety of instructional media.

Multimedia Approach — A teaching strategy in which a wide variety of materials is used to stimulate student learning. Materials may range through the entire spectrum of educational technology, including such aids as books, films, transparencies and simulations.

Multi-Text — Utilization of a variety of textbooks as opposed to a single text approach.

Political Science — The social science discipline concerned with the question of how people govern themselves and their interaction with their political environment.

Post-Holing — In-depth digging into subject areas.

Problem-Solving Approach — A teaching strategy which uses a mode of inquiry allowing students opportunities for finding answers to questions or solutions to problems.

Psychology — The social science discipline concerned with the study of behavior and behavioral change.

Psychomotor Domain — One of the classifications of educational objectives which emphasize a motor skill.

Public Issues Approach — A teaching strategy which is used to explore controversial public issues. It is a rational process for dealing with conflict through specific discussion techniques.

Role-Playing — A teaching strategy that provides a group problem-solving situation in which students explore the problem, alternatives available to them, and the personal and social consequences of the proposals.

Scope and Sequence — A curriculum plan to determine the grade or level placement of instructional materials as well as the depth of study at these levels.

Simulation — A teaching strategy in which a simplified model of a social situation is established so that students may work through a specifically devised problem, having at hand materials and equipment needed.

Skills — Organized ways of dealing effectively with materials, problems or situations.

Social Participation — Involvement or interaction with others. This requires many skills, such as communication and working with others. This is one of the broad goals of social studies and includes both the quality and quantity of the interaction.

Social Science — The body of knowledge that has been researched and developed by the social scientist in his attempt to logically interpret human relationships.

Social Studies — The body of knowledge that emerges from the research and development of the social scientist. This knowledge is adapted to instructional purposes.

Sociology — The social science discipline that concerns itself with the nature, conditions and consequences of group interaction.

Structure of the Discipline — The organization of the cognitive composition of a field of knowledge. Usually it is in terms of the concepts, generalizations, theories, laws and models that define a subject area. Structure also can relate to the processes used by the practitioners of the various desciplines in forming hypotheses and gathering proof for validating the hypotheses.

Thematic Approach — A strategy in teaching where themes are selected to give structure and continuity to the curriculum.

Values — The result of judgments made by an individual or the society as a whole which determine the relative importance or worth of a thing, idea, practice or belief.

Value-Clarification Approach — A teaching strategy which is used to focus on the process of valuing rather than the content of values. It attempts to help students answer questions about how values are formed and to develop their own value systems.

Value Judgment — Judgments which rate things with respect to their worth. These may be positive, negative, neutral or prescriptive evaluations.

Verification — Teaching strategies that require students to test their knowledge through such processes as seeking and solving problems, making and applying generalizations, and model building and prediction.

Secondary

Social Studies

a guide for curriculum development

Indiana Department of Public Instruction Harold H. Negley, Superintendent

Introduction to Secondary

The secondary section of the guide consists of expanded units used as examples for teaching United States history, American government, anthropology, economics, geography, seventh grade global studies, world civilizations, psychology and sociology. Each unit contains overviews or introductions, objectives, strategies, activities and resources.

The rationale for this organization is to provide exemplars or models (nonprescriptive illustrations) that suggest a variety of teaching strategies, identify areas of conflict or controversy and provide insights into the motivation process. It does not include all courses or possible combinations of social studies emphasis. The intention is that the examples given can be applied to other courses which are now offered or are deemed important in the future. In this manner, flexibility and alternatives are left up to local choice within the framework of the textbook adoption categories.

American History

Overview

American history is generally offered at three levels in Indiana schools: middle school, junior high and high school. American history courses at all levels should place particular emphasis on the contributions of all groups of all people in American society. Recognition of this cultural pluralism is essential to understanding our diverse American society. Topics in American history should consist of those persisting themes and issues which continue to the present.

The eighth grade course should be a general overview of American history with a special emphasis on pre-20th century America. The course should deal with such related concepts as forms of government, democracy, colonialism, civil rights, industrialism and urbanization.

The required high school course in American history may be offered anywhere in the ninth through the 12th grade levels. The course should continue to expand the basic concepts developed in the general overview of American history in the eighth grade course. However, the primary emphasis should be 20th century American history.

What are different approaches to the study of American history? Here are four different approaches with an assessment of strengths and weaknesses.

Chronological. This is the most frequently used approach to the teaching of history in elementary, secondary and college courses. Emphasis is placed on description of events, beginning from a historical baseline and continuing to the present. The principal strength is that it allows for systematic coverage. The principal weakness is that events tend to be unrelated, no given period or topic is covered in sufficient detail, teachers often do not deal with more recent or contemporary events, and it tends not to deal with problems or issues.

Topical. The topical approach is used occasionally in both American and world history courses. Chapters or units are grouped around a theme or topic, e.g., religion, industrialism, reform, change or some other fairly large category. The principal strength is that such an approach allows for in-depth study, it can be modified to deal with different levels and different abilities, and it allows teachers to use a diversity of techniques. The principal weakness is that, like the chronological approach, it is not inherently centered around problems or issues and may therefore be unstimulating and unmotivating.

Issue-centered or problem-centered. This is a more recent approach, used typically in an interdisciplinary curriculum. Textbooks tend to give way to a variety of different media and techniques, as teachers group historical events around what students identify as problems. Thus, teachers may wish to begin with a persisting problem, such as aggression, technological change, freedom vs. control, or a similar category. The principal strength is that it is inherently problem-centered and is likely to deal with student interest and concerns. It also allows for considerable diversity of technique, as teachers can group according to ability, interest, achievement or other criteria. The principal weakness is that it is fairly complex, requires a somewhat adventuresome teacher, may be misunderstood by others and presupposes a good deal of extra work by the teacher.

Integrated or core. This approach, developed during the 1930s still is used, although in somewhat disguised form. Ordinarily an integrated or core approach allows the grouping of a course or discipline, such as history, with another related course, such as English. Another often used grouping is history and science. The principal strength is that it permits teachers in usually unrelated disciplines to work together cooperatively. It also permits the use of much variety and diversity, e.g., grouping around problems, topics or chronology. The principal weakness is that it requires much time and planning, different resources and materials must be present in abundance, and teachers often feel that their particular discipline has been shortchanged.

Students at all levels should be encouraged to develop inquiry skills by using a variety of sources such as expository accounts, primary sources, listening and observing. Whatever techniques are utilized and skills developed in American history courses, allowances for diversity and flexibility should be made in developing essential themes.

Introduction

All the American history topics suggested below are to be found in typical texts and curricula. The treatment will emphasize diversity. Thus, each topic can be taught at different levels — most particularly the eighth and 11th grades when American history is typically offered. Further, each treatment will suggest topics that are appropriate to different abilities within a heterogeneous classroom.

In creating objectives, the instructor should first

assess entry behavior, that is, what students are already able to do at the beginning of the unit. He should then decide what students should be able to do following the instruction. To assist in this process, instructors should make use of the various taxonomies (Bloom, Krathwohl and others) in order to determine the appropriate level of knowledge. They should then continue to ascertain that the activities are consistent with the objectives and realize them.

Knowledge

The unit below concerns the topic of reform in American history. The Era of Reform, popularized by the Muckrakers of that time, begins in the last quarter of the 19th century and deals with a variety of related issues, such as political corruption, economic monopolies, pure food and drugs, feminism and alcohol abuse. The objectives and activities below can be made appropriate to a chronological, a topical or an issue-centered approach. Different activities lend themselves to differing levels of student ability.

Students will:

1. Identify and describe the issues which give rise to different reform movements within American history.
2. Trace the issue, from its first appearance to the present.
3. Analyze the value conflicts which underlie a given issue.

Skills

Students will:

1. Locate different kinds of pertinent data, e.g., texts, reference books, periodicals, newspapers and human resources.
2. Interpret data and extrapolate from given data to past and present issues.
3. Develop sequential cause-and-effect relationships, such that a given event in time is logically related to both a previous and later one.

Activity

Cartoon interpretation. Students will:

1. Describe the cartoon, explaining what each figure in the cartoon stands for or symbolizes, such as different values, events or groups. Sample questions: What do the pigs represent? What does this say about the cartoonist's biases and views?
2. Explain the main points of the contemporary issues (women in politics, temperance, hostility toward the established social order) which appear to be represented in this cartoon.
3. Relate the reform issue in this cartoon to the present — use of the epithet "pigs" by contemporary radicals to describe police and the still hotly debated issue as to the proper role of women (Women's Liberation).
4. Identify the biases of this cartoonist, relating this process to other cartoons taken from contemporary newspapers.
5. **Emphasize the continuing nature of problems in American history, such as the temperance issue of the 1870s which is illustrated in the cartoon, the feminist movement of the 1920s, and Women's Liberation issue in the present.**

The next section concerns the problems of technology, invention and social lag. Technological innovation ordinarily is introduced with the invention of the cotton gin by Eli Whitney. The concept is further developed with other mechanical inventions in the field of agriculture as well as the invention of the steam engine, the harnessing of electrical energy and the introduction of the automobile in the late 19th and early 20th centuries. The following section attempts to relate technology more directly to your students by asking them to reflect on more commonplace implements in their environment. It also asks them to speculate about the impact of technology on the attitudes, feelings and beliefs of Americans.

Knowledge

Students will:

1. List a variety of common household objects and explain the major steps in their technological development.
2. Describe and explain the ways in which the development of one particular invention influences the growth of technology in other fields.
3. Identify, describe and analyze specific instances of "cultural lag," relating a given invention to changes in values, perception and feelings.

Values
Students will:

1. Extrapolate into the future by identifying a series of important changes that will, could or might result as a consequence of technological development.
2. Express and defend a value with regard to any or all of the changes cited above.
3. List and defend criteria for evaluating benefits and drawbacks of a given technological change.

Activity

Bring into class a variety of common household objects such as shaving cream, razor blades, patent medicines, and soft drink cans. Identify the approximate year in which each of these items was invented. Relate each of the inventions to other historical patterns of the same era. Identify and evaluate some of the changes that took place as a result of the invention. (Example: How did the invention of glass containers and later, metal ones, change the institution of the local bar or pub? Is this a change in the way people relate to each other?) Name and describe the changes in attitudes, feelings or beliefs which subsequently came about as a result of this invention.

Ask students to read the following letter which may be lifted in its entirety from the guidelines, duplicated and passed out to the class.

August 7, 1987

Ms. Mary Nelson
7907 Lemon Ave.
Lanesville, IN

Dear Ms. Nelson:

Your application for a driver's license has been refused. Although you did make a passing score on the written test and on the driving test, your psychological profile clearly reveals that you would be an unsafe driver. You may, if you wish, apply for treatment, and on the advice of your therapist take the psychological profile test again. However, you must take it within two years after the therapist's recommendation is received.

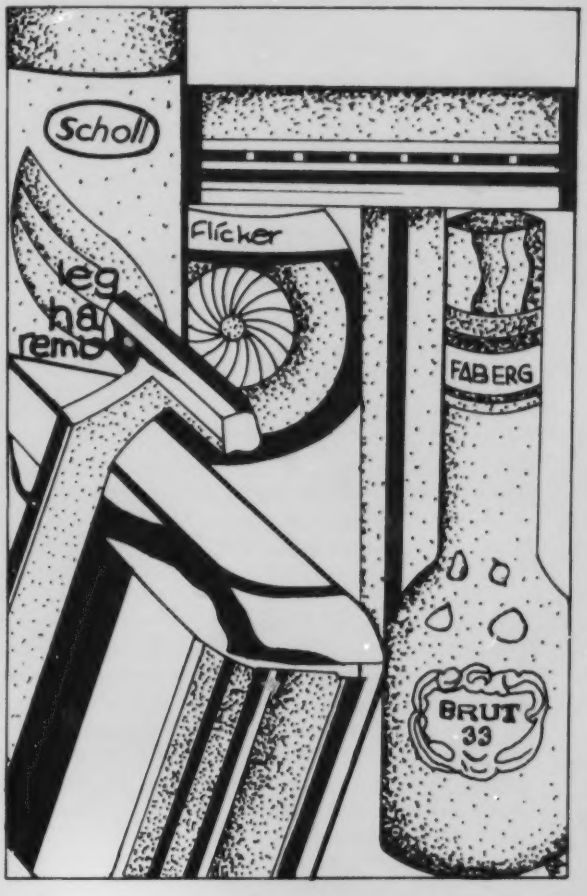
Yours truly,

Powell Felix, Commissioner
Department of Psychological Testing
Indiana Driving Commission

Discuss the following questions with students:

1. What was your initial reaction to this letter?
2. Would you perceive it as a violation of one of your freedoms? Which one? Are you certain that this is a freedom?
3. What is the likelihood of a "Department of Psychological Testing" becoming a part of a state driving license bureau?
4. Can you speculate as to whether psychological testing will ever develop to the extent that it will be able to screen unsafe drivers?
5. If such a test were to be given tomorrow, would you want to take it?
6. This imaginary letter was written in the year 1987. Would it be possible that the events described in this letter could come about sooner than 1987? When?
7. The therapist described in this letter has a good deal of authority. Would you feel comfortable delegating this much authority to psychologists?
8. What other inventions in the past have been used presumably for the public welfare? (If students cannot identify such, you might mention to them one or more of the following: intelligence tests used at first during World War I, college entrance exams, Wasserman tests, Breathalyzer tests.)

The following is an example of the use of a collage as a springboard into inquiry. Using one limited topic — inventions centering around shaving — it is possible to lead into a number of research activities.



Where Have All the Whiskers Gone:
Long Time Growing?

The stone knife
The steel blade knife
The straight razor
The safety razor
The electric razor
The razor for women
The depilatory
The injector razor
The adjustable injector razor
The Teflon coated blade
The double blade
The foaming gel
etc., etc., etc.

1. Are the developments in shaving truly a linear progression?
2. Did companies survey public opinion to see if people really wanted all of these developments?
3. What kind of costs are involved in researching and developing new shaving systems?
4. Is shaving a good example of the "progress" of technology?

For research topics, ask students to find data, present it in groups and analyze in class discussion the following:

1. There is a pattern throughout history in which a major breakthrough invention is made periodically. Following that invention are other, usually less significant inventions, which are really modifications of the original. As time passes, these inventions seem to come closer and closer to one another in appearance and use. (Hint: If students have difficulty grasping the intent of this, discuss with them the invention of the transistor.)
2. What inventions are succeeded by what students consider extremely desirable consequences? For instance, students might wish to consider the discovery of the pain-killing properties of ether and the development of the field of anesthesiology.
3. What inventions are succeeded by what students consider extremely undesirable consequences? For instance, students might wish to consider the invention of gunpowder.
4. What inventions are succeeded by what students consider both desirable and undesirable consequences? One possibility might be the automobile.
5. There are a variety of social benefits which are essentially spin-offs of the space program. One is the capacity of orbiting satellites to take pictures of the earth, thereby providing information on weather patterns. Have students name others and evaluate them. (Hint: Others are telemetry, Teflon, microminiaturization, food processing.)
6. Have one group of students read a Jules Verne novel, ask another to locate science fiction written around the 1930s or 1940s (Buck Rogers or Flash Gordon, for example.) Have both groups report to the class, answering such questions as:
   a. How accurate was Jules Verne? The creators of the two comic strips?
   b. How optimistic or pessimistic were Verne and the two comic strip originators?
   c. How was Verne regarded in his time? As an imaginative and eccentric but perhaps unbalanced person? As a prophet?
   d. Have both groups make a series of predictions into the future, say the year 2,000, the year 2,500 and the year 5,000.

The section below, emphasizing the domain of social participation, asks students to capitalize on the rich variety of historical markers, memorials and other sites in Indiana. There is no area of Indiana that is devoid of historical interest, from the birthplace of James Whitcomb Riley, to the Pigeon Creek home of Lincoln, to the residence of the author of *Ben Hur*. Attempt to secure the assistance of your local or state historical society. The bicentennial year is especially appropriate for the use of Indiana historical markers.

Social Participation
Objectives. Students will:

1. List and describe those local, state and national organizations concerned with the preservation of historical sites.
2. Identify memorials and markers within a close proximity of their community.
3. Assess the attitudes and feelings of individuals about the importance of historical sites.

Activities

Relating a series of field trips to some aspect of American history, students can organize themselves to photograph and collect information on different sites, markers, memorials and other historically important places. Students can visit the local cemetery, and by the use of inference combined with information available from the local historical society, make a series of hypotheses about the ethnic backgrounds, causes of death and other aspects concerning the past populace.

Students can construct a historical map of the outlying community, identifying major historical landmarks. Each landmark on the map can be related to some aspect of local history.

Students can take a poll or conduct a survey designed to find out what the local populace knows about different historical sites or markers.

RESOURCES

The following materials will provide additional aid for instruction in American history:

George Rogers Clark Teachings Units. Indianapolis, IN: Indiana Department of Public Instruction and the Indiana State Museum, administered by the Indiana Department of Natural Resources. These complete classroom activities provide a wide variety of teaching techniques applicable to any part of history studies. Filmstrips are included. This material may be obtained from Jane W. Lowrie, social studies consultant, Division of Curriculum, Indiana Department of Public Instruction, 10th floor, 120 W. Market St., Indianapolis, IN 46204.

Manufacture and Agriculture, Unit 2 of Geography in an Urban Age. New York, NY: The MacMillan Company. Students are provided with keen insight into why countries develop the way they do and into the manufacturing and agricultural development of the United States. The units were developed by the High School Geography Project of the Association of American Geographers, 1710 16th St. NW, Washington, DC 20009.

Conflict and Change: Themes for U.S. History. New York, NY: Center for Global Perspectives, Intercom #76. One of an extensive series of Intercoms dealing with a variety of topics pertinent to understanding historical development and current policies of the United States as well as old world cultures. Write to the center at 218 E. 18th St., New York, NY for materials.

Teaching American History: The Quest for Relevancy. Washington, DC: National Council of the Social Studies (NCSS). This publication presents many useful suggestions to help students understand the nature and discipline of history. Further, students are aided in developing a mode of inquiry, understanding concepts, a sense of empathy and ways of dealing with suspected myths and stereotypes. A simulation, "Appalachian Coal Miners", helps students develop that sense of empathy within a topic of current concern in the energy shortage. This publication and other useful ones may be obtained by writing to the council at 1515 Wilson Blvd., Suite 101, Arlington, VA 22209.

Social Education. The NCCS monthly journal frequently provides useful assistance in teaching American history. One special issue, Vol. 38, No. 2, February, 1974, is devoted to the topic, "Teaching About the American Revolution." One very motivating technique is presented through the utilization of songs and ballads. A formidable bibliography is included.

American Government

Overview

There are many approaches to the teaching of American government, all possessing strengths and weaknesses. But, whatever approach a teacher wishes to take, there are certain goals considered desirable.

First, effective instruction about politics and government should provide realistic knowledge about political life. It should provide students with accurate, up-to-date and relatively unbiased information about their government or the governments of other societies.

Second, it should enable students to cope with the value issues, dilemmas and problems that underlie all political decisions. Students should perceive that no political decision is easy or obvious and that any choice carries with it certain trade-offs.

Third, the ultimate aim of study is social participation; students should become motivated enough to be effective political actors.

What are different approaches to the study of government? Here are five different approaches with an assessment of strengths and weaknesses.

Legal-institutional. This is the most frequently used approach to the study of government in secondary classes. Emphasis is placed on the formal aspects of government — laws, the structure of government, institutions and the function of the three-part government. The principal weakness is that the more subtle informal processes are ignored; the compromises, trade-offs, bargaining and pressures inherent in our political decision-making processes are overlooked. Emphasis on formal description tends to leave students with a mechanical view of government so that persistent problems are not identified.

Behavioral. A more recent approach, derived from the research methods of social scientists, emphasizes the study of political *behavior.* Students concentrate on the real behavior — the actions, passions, beliefs and values — of those involved in the political process. The weakness is that students may lose sight of the wholeness of institutions.

Comparative. The comparative approach first identifies political processes and institutions and then compares them. The comparison may be within one society or, quite frequently, may cut across different societies. The strength is that students may lose some of their ethnocentric beliefs and are able to see that different societies develop different institutions in response to fairly similar needs. The weakness is that students may not gain detailed understandings of their own political system.

Law-related. This approach emphasizes the role of law in society and the rights and responsibilities of all citizens. It establishes the concept of the "rule of law" and provides a sophisticated treatment of the development of our own legal and institutional processes. However, the informal and nonlegal aspects of politics and government may be slighted.

Public issues. The issues approach gives students an opportunity to focus on live issues and contemporary problems. Emphasis is on the real concerns and conflicts of governmental life and on the pressures that affect political decisions. The weakness is that students may lose sight of both the institutional framework and the day-by-day context of politics.

Teachers may wish to employ a combination of these approaches. Whatever approach is used, however, teachers should be aware of the goals of providing realistic and objective information, generating awareness of values and value conflict, and preparing students for full participation in public life.

Translating Objectives into Activities

You may wish to refresh your memory by reviewing the Rationale and the discussion of objectives in the area of *knowledge, values* and *social participation.*

Knowledge

Analysis

Students should be able to employ data drawn from statistical tables, make inferences, recognize limitations and reach tentative conclusions. This process can be related to the socio-economic aspects of political behavior.

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Activity

An example of this objective may be found in Mehlinger and Patrick, *American Political Behavior,* Chapter 11. See the *Teacher's Guide* related to this text for an explanation of the use of statistical data in Chapter 11.

Data for teacher-prepared statistical tables can be obtained from a variety of sources. Some include the following:

1. *American Political Science Review,* selected issues.
2. *Western Political Quarterly,* selected issues.
3. The American Institute of Public Opinion (Gallup Poll).
4. *Midwest Journal of Political Science,* selected issues.
5. Census Bureau — United States Census Bureau.
6. *Journal of Politics,* selected issues.
7. United Nations
8. *Statistical Abstract of the United States*
9. Local newspapers
10. National news magazines

Application

Students shall apply an abstract concept to explain a particular instance by identifying the principle of checks and balances.

Activity

Students should first view — either on a transparency, the chalkboard or a handout — six specific situations.

1. The Senate approves a Presidential appointment to the Supreme Court.
2. A federal judge is impeached by Congress.
3. A law signed by the President is declared unconstitutional by the Supreme Court.
4. The President vetoes a bill passed by Congress.
5. The Senate refuses to ratify a treaty negotiated by the President.
6. A treaty has been interpreted as unconstitutional by the Supreme Court.

Questions: In each case, who is checking whom? Where in the Constitution is authority for each case of checking or balancing? What are the advantages of the checks and balance system? The disadvantages? Can you come up with other examples of the checks and balance system in action?

Students shall be able to relate a theoretical position of the Founding Fathers to the concrete operations of government by identifying a principle, explaining the reasoning behind the principle, and describing the principle in action.

Activity

Consult Essay No. 47 in the *Federalist Papers.* In this essay Madison is attempting to answer the charges of anti-Federalists that the Constitution was likely to lead to tyranny by placing too much power in one person or in one institution of government.

Questions: What are the anti-Federalists saying, according to Madison? What recent experience do you suppose they were drawing upon? What assumptions do you suppose they are making about the innate tendency of power to corrupt persons? What is Madison's defense of the proposed Constitution? Did others believe him? Do you believe him?

Objective

Students shall be able to identify, describe and explain the doctrine of concurrent powers.

(The following chart can be used on a transparency or chalkboard to assist in this objective.)

Legislative	Executive	Judicial
powers shared with the Executive	powers shared with the Legislature	powers shared with the Executive
powers shared with the Judiciary	powers shared with the Judiciary	powers shared with the Legislature

The President has the power to request tax legislation to stimulate the economy. But before any tax bill can be debated before Congress, it must first be approved by the House Ways and Means Committee.

Questions: In what ways is this an Executive power? In what ways does this demonstrate the checks and balances of the Legislative branch on the Executive? Would you think that this entire checks and balances system has led to compromise or conflict between Congress and the President?

Values

Value identification and analysis.

Objective

Students can identify values expressed by cartoonists in political cartoons on the editorial page.

Activity

Students can select any political cartoon in any newspaper (as illustrated below). Students should provide evidence of the ability to identify and interpret *implicit* values by answering a series of analytical questions.

Objective

Students can identify values expressed by cartoonists in political cartoons on the editorial page.

Sample questions that can be asked of the above cartoon:

1. There are three political slogans used. Two of them were used in past wars. In which wars were the two slogans on top employed?
2. The slogan "1975 — Make Oil Safe For Industrial Nations! might be used by which nations? To what does this slogan refer? (or, what events led up to the slogan on bottom?)
3. There, in your own words, what point is the cartoonist attempting to make?
4. What is the meaning of the swords in the first two slogans? What is the meaning of the sword in the bottom slogan?
5. Does this cartoon worry you?
6. Are there other possible interpretations of this cartoon? And if so, what are they?
7. Design another cartoon of your own on the same theme.

Objective

By means of a case study concerning an actual political event, problem or institution, students will be able to identify, explain, analyze and evaluate the value positions of the actors. Students will also be able to describe how the value positions of the actors contributed to the policy outcomes.

Activity

Students must first be introduced to skills involved in analyzing a policy problem in a case study. Through the use of case studies, examples of which are listed below, students will be asked the following questions:

1. What issue or issues are involved?
2. What values are involved in each or all of the positions?
3. How did the values of each of the actors involved affect the outcome?
4. Are you in substantial sympathy or opposition to the outcome? Explain and defend your answer.

Case Studies

1. *Impeachment: The Presidency on Trial,* American Education Publications (AEP)
2. *Political Justice: Haymarket Three,* AEP
3. *Confrontation: The Cuban Missile Crisis,* AEP
4. *Intervention: The Vietnam Build-up,* AEP
5. *Constitution: One Nation or Thirteen,* AEP
6. *Privacy,* AEP
7. *Decision-Making in a Democracy,* Shaver and Larkins, Houghton Mifflin
8. "Cuban Missile Crisis," Chapter 13 and "What Decision Is Best? The Case of Senator Williams," Chapter 14, (Mehlinger and Patrick) *American Political Behavior,* Ginn and Co. Also see *Teacher's Guide* to this textbook.

Social Participation

Strategy Planning

Objective

Students shall be able to identify, describe and explain the term "mini-max solution". Students shall be able to devise a strategy for producing a mini-max.

Activity

A definition: A "mini-max solution" results in a decision with a *maximum* benefit and a *minimum* cost to the person or persons making the decision. (Note: "cost" refers not only to monetary cost but cost in terms of time, energy and values that one must surrender or trade off.)

The case of the "Prisoner's Dilemma" is an example of what is involved in a "mini-max solution."

The "Prisoner's Dilemma" is a game of strategy in which two prisoners are being held incommunicado. Both are charged with the same crime. They can be convicted only if either confesses. If only one confesses, he is set free for having turned state's evidence and he is given a reward. The prisoner who holds out is convicted on the strength of the other's testimony and is thereby given a more severe sentence than if he had confessed. It is in the interest of each to confess no matter what the other does. *But* it is also in their collective interest to hold out.

This game involves a bitter paradox. There is no satisfactory solution. The brevity and simplicity of the game is misleading. Attempts to analyze it carry one deeper and deeper into the maze of intricate and interrelated questions which it is impossible to keep on a purely rational level. For what seems rational from your point of view, turns out to be detrimental in the end.

A detailed account of many experiments in which "Prisoner's Dilemma" was played may be found in Anatol Rapoport and Albert M. Chammah, *Prisoner's Dilemma*, Michigan: University of Michigan Press, 1965.

Acquiring a Point of View

Objective

Students shall be able to first identify a contemporary problem of political importance; second, select a position; and third, build a carefully reasoned case for this position.

Activity

Students shall select a problem which may be on a local, state or federal level. It may involve a judicial, executive or legislative issue — or any combination of the three. Each student is to write a letter setting forth the problem and advocating a solution. The letter can be mailed to a hypothetical appropriate official or a newspaper.

"First the good news . . . When you were a boy your Uncle Franklin D. set up a trust fund for your retirement years. The bad news is some scoundrel seems to have spent it all!"

Anthropology

Introduction

Anthropology is one of the newest of the social sciences and one of the most recent additions to the secondary social studies curriculum. As with other social sciences, anthropology is the study of human behavior. Anthropologists, however, attempt to view a society or group in a broader sense than an economist or political scientist. Rather than focusing on a system of exchange or government, anthropologists study the interrelationships of all human activities within a culture.

Physical. Anthropology is divided into two major categories: physical and cultural anthropology. Physical anthropology is closely related to the biological sciences of anatomy, physiology, osteology and paleontology. It focuses on human development, racial differentiation, and the adjustments that human heredity makes to differing environmental conditions. Physical anthropologists tend to concentrate their attention on skeletal remains and on human artifacts.

Cultural. Cultural anthropology is a broader field of study. Most secondary courses are based predominantly on cultural anthropology which emphasizes learned behavior. Cultural anthropologists are concerned primarily with what they call "cultural universals" — behavior which is to be found in virtually all cultures. Thus, cultural anthropologists examine tool making and technology, food gathering techniques, oral and written literature, government, economics, religion, sexual morals, courting patterns and family forms. Although many anthropology texts focus on preliterate societies, modern technological societies can be just as effectively studied using anthropological methods. For example, subcultures within our society — youth culture, schools, factory workers and farmers — are valid subjects for secondary anthropology students.

Rationale. Anthropology is most frequently included in the secondary curriculum as an elective for above-average ability 11th and/or 12th graders. This is a result of several factors, including the reading level of most of the materials, its position as a relative "newcomer" to the secondary curriculum and the feeling on the part of many teachers that they are not qualified to teach it. However, there is no reason why anthropological content should not be taught to more students by integrating it into traditionally offered courses such as Non-Western Cultures, World History or Social Problems. It is closely related to sociology and could easily be combined with that subject and taught as an elective course. All secondary students should at least get a chance to view humankind through an anthropologist's perspective. As one anthropologist put it, "It allows humans to view themselves in their infinite variety."

Objectives

Upon completion of the activities, students will:

1. Define role, industrial revolution, achieved role, ascribed role, subculture and adolescence.
2. Relate the concepts technology, industrial revolution and adolescence.
3. Describe the growth of an adolescent subculture, in the United States.
4. Evaluate the role — or lack of roles — of adolescents.
5. Extrapolate from the above to predict the impact of modern technology on any Third World country of their choice.

Activities

Begin with the statement that adolescent young men from 16 to 25 pay a much higher premium on their automobile insurance than do women. Ask for an explanation of this phenomenon. Some students may suggest that adolescent boys often drive too rapidly, dangerously or in a "show off" fashion. Ask for reasons why this phenomenon may be true. Divide the class into small groups with the following topics assigned for investigation:

The Coming of the Industrial Revolution in the United States.
Child Labor Between 1840 and 1940.
Increase in the Growth of Leisure Time.

The first two topics may be found in both American and World History textbooks and in encyclopedias. The third will probably require an

article in a book on sociology, or at least a popular treatment of the subject.

Topics for the next phase of discussion and analysis will center around the following topics:

1. What were the reasons for the passage of laws which prevented the use of children in hard and dangerous jobs?
2. What were the motives of labor unions for the passage of these laws?
3. What have been the consequences of the considerable growth of leisure time activities for adolescents?
4. How many students work? At what kind of jobs? Are these jobs satisfying? Well-paying? Do they confer any status upon the worker?

Students can be encouraged to find answers to these questions by interviewing parents who belong to unions, union officials and each other and by reporting the results in some formal fashion. The more verbally developed students may dip into the topics of industrialism, the growth of unions, and the passage of child labor legislation in some depth. However, all students are capable of interviewing adults or other teenagers and reporting their results. The entire class may wish to discuss the topics and issues arising out of their feelings about work, status, and attitudes toward "menial" labor.

The next phase of the topic can turn to the definition of adolescence and the role and status ordinarily attached to this period of life in our society. Topics for investigation by students include:

Youth and Maturity in a Preliterate Society.
Work in a Traditional European Society.

The first topic may be found in Margaret Mead's works, especially *Growing Up in Samoa*, now a classic in its field. Ask a student to identify and interview an adult who was born and educated and who held some kind of job in a European country. An especially bright youngster would probably be gratified to read Paul Goodman's *Growing Up Absurd*, the work of a "radical" sociologist whose ideas have recently gained considerable currency.

Topics for discussion may center around such themes as:

1. Are there differences in attitudes, work roles, status and prestige in a) a preliterate (or primitive) society, b) a traditional European society and, c) contemporary American society?
2. Under what conditions might you wish to live and grow up in either a preliterate or a traditional European society?

If possible, have one of or several class members interview adults who grew up on a farm and who performed the typical farm tasks. Ask other students to locate an autobiography of a famous American who also grew up on a farm and who views his early life through a nostalgic haze. There are a good many such autobiographies, since, up until recently most Americans did grow up on farms.

At this point, ask students to concentrate on the method, approach and bases of their sources of information. Compare the technical and precise approach of social scientists with the adults they interviewed. Ask them to identify biases, distortions, etc. What are the scientists' biases and the casual accounts of others? What accounts for biases? Do social scientists also have biases, and if so, what are they? Ask students to compare their interviews with the more structured ones of ethnologists (anthropologists who describe and analyze different cultures).

At this stage, it might be possible to return to the original theme by asking such questions as:

1. In what sense has industrialism liberated people? From what?
2. In what sense has industrialism made certain tasks meaningless?
3. Why is it that most would assert that all labor, if socially useful and conscientiously done, is inherently dignified, and yet it is a fact that certain jobs have little status, others have some and a few have a great deal of status?
4. Why is it that preliterate societies do not have any such conception as "adolescence?" In what sense is adolescence a creature of an industrialized society?
5. Would it be possible to relate the high incidence of reckless and show-off adolescent driving with adolescence in this society? If so, how?
6. What are ways that individual students/young people can find to increase their satisfaction with their own existence?
7. What sorts of changes might be made in our society to increase adolescent satisfaction?

Objectives

Upon completing this activity, students will:

1. Define such terms as "aggression," "hostility," "belligerence," "cooperation," "culture," "drive," "modifiable," and "genetically inherited."
2. Summarize different positions concerning the phenomenon of aggressiveness among humans.
3. Cite related evidence from appropriate disciplines, such as biology, ethnology and paleontology.
4. Compare and contrast societies characterized by, on the one hand, cooperation and gentleness, and on the other by aggressiveness, hostility, etc.
5. State and defend a position with regard to the origins of aggressiveness.
6. Project possible changes that might take place with regard to aggressive behavior control and legal punishment within our society.
7. Suggest implications for foreign policy with regard to war, revolution, counter-culture aggression, etc.

Introduction. The question, "Are humans innately and inherently aggressive or naturally cooperative and gentle?" is related to the question, "What part does culture play in rendering people aggressive or combative?" These two questions are fairly ancient but have attracted considerable attention lately with the works of Conrad Lorenz, Robert Ardrey, Anthony Storrs and others from a number of disciplines. Currently, both within our society and through the world, many have expressed considerable fear and anxiety, not only at the thought of an atomic war but also at the many, seemingly intractable "brush fire" wars that take place within a given country and as a result of unresolved conflict between countries. Anthropologists, because of their interest in comparative culture and in preliterate cultures, have amassed a considerable amount of evidence on the subject.

Activities

Activities can begin with an analysis of the treatment of wars, strikes, revolutions, violent confrontations, etc., to be found in any account of American history. Locate multiple copies of the same American history book or find copies of a number of different texts. Ask students to form groups for purposes of simply listing the names and kinds of *conflict situations* ordinarily mentioned. Another group of students may perform the same task with a World History textbook.

Ask the class to come together to report on their findings. While the teacher uses the chalkboard, ask students to attempt to classify the different kinds of conflict situations. Use any classification system they wish — war, rebellion, strike, organized banditry in the West, organized urban crime, street fights, etc. Possible questions for discussion include:

1. How many different kinds of conflict are there?
2. How would one classify them, i.e., with such terms as "mild," "serious," "life-threatening," "short-lived," etc? Attempt to get students to make judgments about the severity of conflict either within our culture or throughout the world.
3. Is conflict so pervasive and widespread that one might conclude that human beings have something within their inherited structure that "makes" them naturally violent and aggressive?

All students may be assigned the task of watching television, any programs of their choice, and attempting to group them the next class meeting. Students are to write the name of the television program and to note any kinds of conflict or violence, either expressed or physically present. Those who watch the six or 10 o'clock news may also take note of examples of violence, crime, warfare, etc., whether a robbery, an international hijacking incident, a protest that exploded into violence, communal conflict (e.g., Arab-Jewish conflict in Israel, Catholic-Protestant conflict in Northern Ireland). When students meet the next day, ask them to report and to classify their observations, much as they did at the introduction to this topic. Possible questions that might be asked include:

1. How many instances of conflict, violence, belligerence, etc., did you note?
2. What judgments might be made on the severity of conflict?
3. Can anyone hazard a guess as to the possible reasons for conflict, e.g., resentment against alleged repressors, poverty, jealousy, economic exploitation or racial bias?
4. Are there any patterns? That is, does one particular group seem to demonstrate more conflict, violence, etc. than another? If so, which ones?

Ask students to divide into groups for purposes of performing different types of research. One group may wish to read and then comment on conflict and violence in various types of literature, ranging from classical Shakespearean plays to *The Red Badge of Courage* and *Tale of Two Cities* (or others commonly included in literature anthologies). Others may wish to examine the private detective and cowboy genre for patterns of conflict. Another group may wish to examine some of the popular treatments, as reported in *Psychology Today*. Another group may look into some anthropological classics, especially those by Ruth Benedict and Margaret Mead which, although technical in some sense, are written for a nonspecialized audience and are therefore capable of being read and understood by some bright high school age youngsters.

In a classroom discussion, the various committees may present their reports. Possible questions for consideration include:

1. Can one reasonably compare conflict situations in literature with those on television? Can one compare also the gentle families on *Little House on the Prairie* with the loving families in *Gentle Persuasion?*
2. Is conflict a fairly typical theme for writers? For all writers? If not, what particular kind of literature tends to deal with violence?
3. What would explain the longstanding fascination of Americans with literary violence, whether that of James Fennimore Cooper (*Leatherstocking*, etc.) and Owen Wister (*The Virginian*) or the James Bond and Philip Marlowe spy-detective stories of today?
4. Once again, the question, "Is violence, aggressiveness, etc., so widespread as to justify the judgment that man must have inherited 'genes for aggressiveness?' "

At this stage, students may wish to consult some of the curriculum materials listed at the end of this unit. *MACOS, Man A Course of Study*, deals with this topic, as does the episode, *Simulating Social Conflict*. *Origins of Humanness* provides evidence which may be interpreted variously. Robert Ardrey's works, especially *The Territorial Imperative*, suggests that aggressiveness is innate, as does the best-seller *The Naked Ape*, by Desmond Morris.

The final section of this unit may be devoted both to summarizing the different kinds of evidence related to the subject and also to projecting implications for public or international policy. Possible topics include:

1. Is there clear agreement among the different scientists and social scientists concerning the origins of aggressive behavior? If not, why not?
2. Do differences in interpreting evidence concerning aggression possibly relate to the assumptions, biases and frameworks of the researchers? Or do such differences relate to the use of different kinds of evidence? (Thus, is it possible to a Robert Ardrey, that examining violence in our hominoid ancestors, might come to a different conclusion than Margaret Mead who examines the gentle and peaceful Arapesh?)
3. Would it indeed make a difference to public policy if it were known with certainty that man was *inherently* aggressive? If so, what difference or differences?
4. If it were the case that *all* forms of aggression and hostility were learned from the culture, what difference would this finding make?
5. If the United Nations had to carry out three of your wishes in regard to conflict-revolution, what would they be?
6. If the Senate and the House had to pass one large piece of legislation concerning conflict reduction and related issues, what would you recommend to them?

Objectives

Upon completion of this activity students will:

1. Define the terms "cultural universal," "cultural trait," "cultural pattern," and "cultural conflict."
2. Distinguish between complementary and oppositional cultural traits.
3. State in their own words the anthropological concept that cultural traits tend to form a mutually reinforcing whole.
4. Cite evidence with regard to traits in our own culture which are either mutually reinforcing or which are unharmonious.
5. Relate the universal known as clothing and adornment to both our culture and to a preliterate culture.
6. Evaluate the relationship between clothing styles and the economics of the textile industry.

Introduction

Clothing and adornment is considered an anthropological universal, i.e., all cultures known to anthropologists feature some kind of clothing and/or adornment. Although clothing has such utilitarian functions as protection from the elements, it also functions to indicate status and often to attract the opposite sex. In our own culture, we seem historically unable to decide whether clothing should be merely functional or whether it ought to advertise status and attract admirers. In this respect, clothing is somewhat typical of American culture for many of our cultural traits are unclear, shifting and conflictual. Thus, clothing will serve admirably both to introduce students to cultural anthropology and also to promote reflection upon our own culture.

Activity

Locate advertisements, pictures, magazines, texts or other pictorial representations of the styles of clothing worn, say, at the turn of the century, before 1920. Arrange them where they are easily seen by students and ask them to examine the pictures. When they are finished examining them, possible questions to introduce the unit might include:

1. Can you cite differences between clothing styles of this period of time and those of today? (Students will likely express a wide range of observations, dealing with simplicity-complexity, comfort, cost and the fact that older clothing styles are more obviously designed for purposes of modesty.)
2. In what sense is the clothing of 60 (70, 100) years ago similar to that of today? (This question is designed to deal with the functions of clothing. Students may need a bit of help, and if so, suggest that clothing then and now is designed to: protect from the elements; display one's status; distinguish between the sexes; distinguish between the young and mature adults; and preserve modesty.)

3. Are there differences between the way people ornamented themselves then and now? (Ornamentation includes all jewelry and cosmetic makeup.) What are some of these differences?

Ask students to break up into groups. Some may continue with the same activity, gathering and sketching clothing styles of various periods, labeling them and describing characteristics. Some may consult the photographic display, *Family of Man*, which consists of hundreds of pictures of people taken at different times from a good many cultures. Others may be encouraged to begin reading a number of anthropological works designed for a general audience and written specifically to analyze American culture. The Englishman Geoffrey Coder's classic, *The Americans*, is now reprinted in paperback (Arrow Books Limited, 1959), and although written 30 years ago, is still relevant. Other anthropologists who have addressed themselves to American culture include Margaret Mead, Ruth Benedict, Hortense Powdermaker and Ralph Linton. Linton's work, *A Tree of Culture*, (New York City: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc.) although also dated, is an excellent introduction to cultural anthropology.

Students can come together for purposes of dealing with the anthropologist's approach to clothing styles, culture and cultural universals. A dittoed handout may be useful in defining and illustrating these terms. Possible questions might include:

1. What do anthropologists mean by "culture?"
2. What do anthropologists mean by the term "cultural universal?"
3. What are some examples of cultural universals? (Students may deal with a good many universals, such as language, economic systems, government, technology, religion, music, art, etc. Or they may wish to concentrate on one universal. If the latter, then attempt to deal in fairly basic terms, with one cultural universal as seen in different cultures.)
4. In what ways are clothes similar throughout the world? (This is essentially a repetition, although at a deeper level, of the same question asked during the first class meeting.) In what ways is clothing different?
5. If we examine clothing worn today, especially by young people, which of the following statements most describes the functions of clothing:

   Clothing protects from cold, rain, heat, etc.
   Clothing serves to advertise the status of the wearer.

   (It may be a bit difficult for students to verbalize this, and if so, ask them such questions as, Can one distinguish between a $10 cotton sweater and one which costs $35 or $50? Do individuals select clothing because of durability? And if not, who does and does not? What elements of clothing serve to single out the wearer as someone who is important, well-to-do, etc?) (See the list of anthropological functions in point No. 2 under activities of this section.)

At this point, ask some students to engage in historical research by examining the history of the textile industry either in Europe (especially England beginning in the 16th Century) or in this country (beginning in the 18th Century). Ask students to record information and be prepared to present it formally, using illustrations, pictures, etc., for a lively and interesting report. At this point, the instructor can shift the analysis somewhat by concentrating on such themes as:

1. How productive is the textile industry? (i.e., how efficient is the textile industry in turning out a vast amount of goods?)
2. Are people always able to make use of the products of the textile industry? (Compare pictures of individuals in our society whose clothing

is in tatters with others who give clothing away not because it is worn out but because the wearer "is tired of looking at it.")

3. In what sense is it in the self-interest of textile manufacturers to engage in such practices as changing clothing styles every year or two? Is this practice common? What are some examples or illustrations? Do we find the same technique used by manufacturers such as automobile makers?
4. Anthropologists note that there is a shift in the function of clothing as conserver of modesty. In the past, clothing was rather unambiguously worn to preserve modesty. (At this point, it might help to reexamine some of the earlier pictures of dresses and men's suits which covered the body from neck to ankles.) What evidence is there that clothing may be used to highlight and accentuate one's natural physical attractions? (Advertisements and pictures of Hollywood stars in full splendor may be useful at this point.)
5. Is the culture especially clear about the need for modesty? Or, in different words, "Does someone always know when it is appropriate to be modest and when to be subtly revealing?"

At this point, it is possible to synthesize the reading done by those who consulted or examined the works of Linton, Gorer, *et. al.* and for purposes of synthesizing the important ideas. It is also possible to extend the inquiry into related areas, i.e., examine other aspects of our culture which are as conflictual as cultural patterns concerning clothing. Possible themes include:

1. We have seen that it is difficult, if not impossible, to determine exactly what are the important functions of clothing. Are there any other areas of our culture in which it is also difficult to know what is proper, ethical, desirable or appropriate?
2. Here are some beliefs, stated as opposites, which are widely held in our culture:

   It is believed that all men are created equal but some are really better than others.
   It is believed that true happiness consists of being contented and satisfied with one's lot in life. It is also believed that people should constantly strive to "improve" themselves.

3. What other pairs of similar statements can you now name?
4. How ought one decide which cultural value is really "right" for oneself?

This activity is deliberately arranged to begin with an anthropological concept, the cultural universal concerning clothing, and to be expanded to deal with other important cultural universals. It is also designed to include insights from the disciplines of history (of the textile industry), economics (the productivity of the textile industry), sociology (status, status symbols) as well as anthropology. This activity deals with the domain of values — as evidenced by the last set of questions stated above. Finally, this activity is designed to bring the data, both from social science disciplines and from students themselves, to bear on questions, issues and problems which are of considerable concern to most adolescents in this society.

RESOURCES

In addition to conventional textbooks in sociology which often contain material on anthropology, there are five sources which are organized either around an inquiry or a social science mode.

Anthropology in Today's World: Case Studies of People and Cultures. Columbus, OH: American Education Publications, Inc. Contains material as diverse as "Seneca Indians Cling to Tribal Unity," "The Jews: Dispersal and Modern Return," "Teen-Age World: An American Invention," and "Black Muslims: New Faith, New Identity." Truly analytical questions are used, as are interpretations, primary source materials and conflicting evidence.

MACOS, Acronym for Man A Course of Study. Washington, DC: Curriculum Development Associates, Inc. Introduces students to research techniques and concepts used by anthropologists. Activities and concepts deal with the behavior of both animals (the herring gull) and preliterate peoples (the Netsilik Eskimo). The designers encourage teachers to help students apply the concepts learned from *MACOS* to problems and issues in contemporary life.

Patterns in Human History. New York: The Macmillan Company. An anthropological series which contains such units as "The Emergence of Complex Societies," "Modernization and Traditional Societies," "Studying Societies," and "Origins of Humanness." The last title is essentially an introduction to physical anthropology, with emphasis on evolution, fossil evidence, genetics and the uniqueness of mankind. The others draw upon ethnology and attempt to translate the anthropological research and inquiry techniques to students. The format, art work and writing are of especially good quality.

Simulating Social Conflict. Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon, Inc. Part of the Episodes in Social Inquiry series prepared by the Sociological Resources for the Social Studies. This particular episode contains models of social science, case studies, analytical questions, simulation games and background material on modern problems

Economics

Introduction

Rationale. The aim of economics education is to improve our understanding of the world in which we live. Without such understanding we are frequently confused and unable to identify, analyze and interpret successfully the economic aspects inherent in so much about us. This aim reflects our conviction that comprehension of the economic realities enhances self-confidence and self-esteem. Accordingly, both intellectual and emotional barriers are lowered and rational decisions — in the light of one's own values — are enhanced. Economics provides both the conceptual framework and the tools for discerning — again, in the light of one's own values — conflicting social alternatives. Hopefully, in the words of two economic educators, " 'better' social decisions will result." Perhaps, suggest Robert V. Horton and Dennis J. Weidenaar in their book, *The Goals of Economics Education: A Delphi-Like Inquiry*, " 'better' social decisions will result through the study of economics".

Overview

Definition. Economics is a study of how we attempt to satisfy our unlimited wants with the limited resources available. As with other social sciences, economics utilizes important analytical tools in the interpretation and analysis of matters that are both personal and social. In order to avoid economic decisions based upon unexamined beliefs and unsubstantiated prejudices, students must examine economic reasoning. They must gain an understanding of the full economic costs and benefits of any decision.

What approaches can be used by public school teachers of economics? There is no single best approach, but current textual materials include some aspects of the following:

Functions of an Economic System

Some secondary school texts begin with the problem of scarcity and how an economic system attempts to utilize scarce resources by answering the questions: What should be produced? How should it be produced? How much ought to be produced? Who gets what is produced? Sometimes command, traditional and market economic systems are compared to see how each answers these questions.

Institutional. A large number of texts employ description of economic institutions as their focal point. The preponderance of treatment is given to listing facts about the institutional structure of federal, state and local agencies as well as describing legislation related to those agencies.

Economic Goals. Another approach involves assessing economic activities in light of the extent to which they promote or hinder the achievement of such economic goals as growth, stability, justice, freedom and security. Particular emphasis is placed upon conflict among goals and upon trade-offs necessary to achieve particular goals.

Issues or Public Policy Approach. With the introduction of mini-courses and issue-oriented materials on the secondary level, many teachers have turned to content dealing with the role of the individual as consumer, worker, saver and investor in the marketplace. Many traditional economics and social studies courses have broadened their orientation to include important social issues.

In recent years, economics educators have identified three different levels of economic thought. Level I includes knowledge, facts, concepts, generalizations and theories. Level II includes values, opinions and beliefs. Level III is devoted to decision-making and participation. Thus, regardless of what approach or combination of approaches one chooses to employ, teachers should provide their students with the knowledge and skills necessary (Level I), within the framework of their own values (Level II), to manage their own affairs more wisely and to play a more effective role in the management of our own society (Level III).

Knowledge-Values-Social Participation

Objectives

Having identified the problem of scarce resources (skilled labor and capital), students will be able to:

1. Identify, describe and illustrate the means by which the early Jamestown settlers attempted to allocate scarce resources among competing needs.
2. Compare the collective decision-making of Jamestown inhabitants with decision-making in contemporary life.
3. Describe the economic system which they prefer and provide a rational defense of their choice.

Activities

The class should be organized into two groups. One student will be elected to play the role of Capt. John Smith, the Jamestown leader. He is to lead a discussion with one group, listing on the chalkboard answers to three questions: What goods ought to be produced? How are goods to be produced? Who ought to receive whatever goods and services are produced? Meanwhile, a second group with another discussion leader can analyze how the same decisions are made in our contemporary, basically market-oriented society.

Following this, there should be another set of discussion questions revolving around the following questions and topics:

1. How are such major decisions as what, how and for whom products and services are made

decided within the two systems, i.e., a comparison of centralized and decentralized decision-making.

2. Are there any trade-offs among the economic goals of freedom, security and growth? Compare the trade-offs *within* and *between* the two systems.
3. Which system would you prefer? Why? Would all persons within this country probably prefer one system? If so, which one? Would all individuals in the world prefer one or the other system? Which one? What would account for the differences in choice?
4. Although our system is largely a *free market* (i.e., capitalist, laissez-faire) system, can one identify features which resemble those of *command* economics?

Objectives
Students will:

1. Identify and describe several factors which discouraged specialization and trade prior to 1789.
2. Describe how specialization and growth were promoted by the U.S. Constitution.
3. Apply cited constitutional principles to the contemporary economics scene.
4. Analyze and evaluate the ways and means by which the Constitution continues to affect the economic well-being of American communities and states.

Activities

Using any high school economics textbook, students should read about economic restrictions which impeded colonial trade during the 17th and 18th centuries, (e.g., mercantilist practices, lack of a uniform system of currency, tariff barriers, differing taxation policies among states, jealousy and competition among states). Students should then discuss, for as long as necessary, principles provided by the constitutional fathers for promoting specialization, trade and economic growth. A follow-up exercise might ask two groups of students to defend England's position on mercantilism as well as the colonists' position on free trade.

A related follow-up activity might compare Hamilton's suggestion that there ought to be tariffs and embargoes for the thirteen colonies with precisely the same suggestion made today by labor groups and certain manufacturing organizations. This entire section might be concluded with an activity that asks students to research present-day constitutional applications to economic activity and growth. Students should be able to evaluate strengths and weaknesses of their research conclusions.

Knowledge-Values-Social Participation

Objectives
Students should first identify and describe in sufficient detail any community project, whether undertaken by government, private enterprise or a special interest organization. They should then:

1. Demonstrate by means of a cost-benefit analysis that there are alternative uses for any resources, i.e., if the community employs a given set of resources one way, it must forego the opportunity of using those same resources for another purpose.
2. Clarify some of the economic factors that led to value conflicts within their community.

Activity

Present your students with the following situation: The local area planning commission has decided to rezone a three-block area in a deteriorating housing section near the central business district to provide room for a shopping center. This decision must be approved by the city council-at-large. Ask students to assume different roles:

- representatives from the area planning commission.
- councilmen representing districts in various parts of the city.
- the manager of the shopping center.
- landlords and tenants living in the displaced housing area.
- taxpayers residing in the outlying sections of the community.

Key questions:

1. Can you identify the various costs for building the shopping center that must be paid for by: a) the community, b) taxpayers, c) landlords and, d) tenants?
2. Who might benefit from this new shopping center *most*? Who might benefit *least*? Who might be expected to oppose this project? Why?
3. Is it possible that the reasons given for opposing the new shopping center might not be the real, underlying reasons? If so, what might possibly be a) the reasons given and b) the underlying reasons?
4. If you were on the city council, how would you attempt to resolve the inevitable conflicts?

Knowledge-Values-Social Participation

Objectives

Upon completion of this exercise, students will:

1. Explain the essential characteristics of a market system.
2. List and describe how the decisions of buyers and sellers in a competitive market help to determine what is produced and how resources are used.
3. Describe the process by which prices tend to move towards equilibrium in a competitive market.
4. Summarize and then relate the foregoing economic processes and mechanisms in a hypothetical situation.

Activity

Divide students into equal numbers of buyers and sellers of corn in a hypothetical wholesale market. Each buyer and seller receives a card with instructions to buy or sell a bushel of corn at a particular price. Prices may range from $1 to $2 per bushel with several buyer and seller cards for each price level. For buyers a figure represents willingness and ability to buy at that particular price. For sellers, the same figure represents their cost for producing the corn. To increase their profits, buyers will attempt to purchase the corn from sellers at the lowest possible prices, (eventually selling at a higher price to retailers). Sellers will attempt to sell their corn to buyers at the highest possible prices. Any attempts to buy at a price higher than indicated on the card or to sell at a price lower than indicated represents a loss.

Start the game by asking buyers and sellers to come together to make a transaction. If a transaction is made, have the seller give the price to the teacher who will place an "x" next to the selling price on the chalkboard, as, for example:

	I	II	III
$2.00	X		
1.80	XXX	XX	
1.60	XX	XX	XXX
1.40	X	XX	XXX
1.20	X	X	
1.00	X		

Players should get a new card after each transaction. After each five-minute period, record the transactions in the succeeding columns. Students should observe that the competitive forces of the market result in prices which move toward an equilibrium.

Knowledge-Values-Social Participation

Objectives

By means of interpreting the following chart, through outside reading and by answering the accompanying questions, students will:

1. Summarize in their own words the principle that government taxing, spending and money policies can be used to achieve the goals of economic growth, a high level of employment and relative price stability.
2. Summarize and be able to apply the principle that policy decisions of a particular administration reflect both the values and the economic conditions existing during that administration.

Activity

Request students to do some background reading on the societal and economic conditions for a particular presidential administration, e.g., Eisenhower (1952-1960); Kennedy (1960-1963); Johnson (1963-1968); Nixon (1968-1974). Ask students to identify:

1. The economic problem of this period (inflation, unemployment, little growth, etc.).
2. The goals or values of that administration.
3. The possible conflict among goals.

GROSS NATIONAL PRODUCT AND RELATED FACTORS 1929-1974

	GNP	GNP 1958 $	Consumer Spending 1958 $	Business Spending 1958 $	Government Purchases 1958 $	Percent Unemployed	Consumer Prices 1967=100
	billions	billions	billions	billions	billions	percent	index
1929	103	204	139	40	22	3.2	51
1933	56	144	113	5	23	25.0	39
1953	365	413	251	61	100	2.9	80
1954	365	407	256	59	89	5.6	81
1955	398	438	274	75	85	4.4	80
1956	419	446	281	74	85	4.2	81
1957	441	453	288	69	89	4.3	84
1958	447	447	290	61	94	6.8	87
1959	484	476	307	74	95	5.5	87
1960	504	488	316	72	95	5.6	89
1961	520	497	323	69	101	6.7	90
1962	560	530	339	79	108	5.6	91
1963	591	551	353	83	110	5.7	92
1964	632	581	374	88	111	5.2	93
1965	685	618	398	99	115	4.5	95
1966	750	658	418	109	127	3.8	97
1967	794	675	430	101	140	3.8	100
1968	864	707	453	105	148	3.8	104
1969	930	726	469	111	146	3.5	110
1970	977	722	477	104	139	4.9	116
1971	1055	745	496	110	138	5.9	121
1972	1155	791	527	123	143	5.6	125
1973	1294	839	552	138	144	4.9	133
1974	1397	821	540	126	146	5.6	148

Using the information from their reading and from the chart above, ask students to serve as advisors to the President. (Explanation of terms can be found in any high school economics text.)

Now, lead a discussion with the class, raising the following analytical questions:

1. Should the President move Congress to raise or to cut government spending?
2. Should the President ask Congress to raise or to cut taxes to the consumer and business?
3. Should the Federal Reserve Board (FRB) make it easier or more difficult for consumers and businesses to borrow from banks?
4. What effect or effects will these actions have upon the economic goals of 1) security, 2) growth, 3) stability and, 4) freedom?
5. Assume the roles of 1) consumer and 2) businessman. How would you react to these decisions?

Locate such publications as the *Economic Report of the President* and the monthly issue of the Federal Reserve Banks. Ask students to compare their decisions with the actual decisions made by the administration and the Federal Reserve Bank.

Activity

A possible follow-up activity to the one above is recommended by George Dawson, a member of the Joint Council on Economic Education. Ask students to develop a bulletin board display, divide it into two sections with a band down the middle of the board from top to bottom. Use one section to display articles, charts, etc., that deal with the current controversy over federal reserve policies and powers. On the other, display materials relating to past conflicts over central bank powers such as Andrew Jackson's "war" on the Second U.S. Bank. The teachers should also prepare sets of questions and activities to be related to each display. Some obvious questions for the example just given are:

1. In what ways is the current controversy over the federal reserve's policies and powers similar to the controversy over the Second U.S. Bank? In what ways does it differ?
2. How was the controversy settled in Jackson's time?
3. What were the results? Was this the best way of settling it?
4. What lessons can we learn from this that might guide us in the current controversy?

Knowledge-Values-Social Participation

Objectives
After participating in the following activities, students will:

1. Describe and explain some of the decisions that must be made by individuals from different income levels as 1) consumers, 2) investors, 3) creditors and 4) savers.
2. Cite reasons why the federal, state and local governments may modify or enforce decisions in the marketplace.

Activity
The following unit was taken from the Kazanjian Depository of Award Winning Entries at Ohio University and was created by Dr. Andrew Nappi. Prepare a series of short episodes, written on a card, describing a situation where consumers are asked to make decisions with respect to either saving, spending, borrowing or investing their income. On each card include sufficient information and details about the profile of the individual consumer and the nature of the investment or goods and services to be purchased so that students can evaluate their position on a rational basis before making decisions. One episode can focus on the decisions that an elderly, retired couple living on a fixed income must make with regard to life insurance coverage and future savings. After the episodes are read and decisions are made, discuss some of the problems faced by consumers as decision-makers and purchasers of goods and services. Ask students to collect newspaper and magazine articles highlighting consumer problems and federal legislation enacted as a response to the need for increased consumer protection. Use these articles to demonstrate how a rationale for government modification of the market system is provided when the basic assumption about the nature of the consumer in a market economy breaks down. Prepare a chart which summarizes this discussion.

Consumer problems	Assumptions about the market	Examples of breakdown	Legislation
Deceptive Advertising	Consumer has knowledge about the market.	Some consumers are ill-informed or deceived.	Truth in lending bill.

Knowledge-Values-Social Participation

Objectives
Through an economic analysis of their own community, students shall be able to identify that the well-being of their community is determined by the input of resources — land, labor and capital — and the efficiency with which these resources are used.

Activity
Have students interview staff from the local Chamber of Commerce, representatives from the city or town council, the area planning commission, labor union officials, and executives from a manufacturing firm and local banks, to elicit their responses on the reasons for the growth — or lack of growth — in the community. Students should be asked to obtain figures on income, employment, new construction activity, land use patterns, capital investment by firms, municipal expenditures, loaning activities of the bank, etc.

RESOURCES

The single most useful source of economics materials for teacher use, other than textbooks, is the Joint Council on Economic Education, 1212 Avenue of the Americas, New York, NY 10036. A request should be made for the council's *Checklist* which contains prices and a brief content description.

A sampling of some effective simulations for classroom use is included. When looking for others (there are many available), write for catalogs from the companies mentioned here.

Economic System, developed by T. Robert Harris and James Coleman, simulates basic features common to a wide variety of economic systems. Players assume the roles of worker, farmer or manufacturer and attempt to obtain a greater number of satisfaction points through wise consumption. Players: 7-13. Time: 2-4 hours. $25 from Western Publishing Co., School and Library Department, 850 Third Ave., New York, NY 10022.

Guns or Butter, a simulation by William Nesbitt, helps students understand how an arms race may be started and whether institutions can change to promote peace. Serving as leaders of nations, students try to increase the real wealth of their country while making sure it is secure from attack by other countries. Playing time: 1-2 hours. Grade level: 7-12. Players: 18-28. $25 from Simile II, P.O. Box 1023, La Jolla, CA 92037.

Strike is a simulation of 19th century labor management relations. The sroom becomes two towns: one having a steel , the other a coal mine. Students assume roles of owners, managers, foremen, workers or unemployed residents of the communities where the mill and mine are located. Historical information is provided to students so that they can make decisions based on their own role. The teacher's guide and 35 student guides are available for $12 from Interact, P.O. Box 212, Lakeside, CA 92040.

For further information on current resources contact the Indiana Council for Economics Education, Krannert Graduate School of Management, Purdue University, West Lafayette, IN 47907.

Geography

Introduction

Rationale. Problems arising out of man-land relationships are becoming increasingly critical, not only in our country but throughout the world. Such problems as overpopulation, exhaustion of natural resources, damage to the environment, erosion of agricultural land, famine and chronic urban crises suggest that future citizens need ideas and information by which they can make intelligent choices. The study of human geography, especially as it has become more related to human problems, can provide an important contribution to an enlightened citizenry.

Overview

Human geography is concerned with describing and explaining the arrangement of human phenomena on the surface of the earth. Thus geographers have been intrigued by such questions as:

- Why do people locate housing and industry in areas subject to recurrent flooding?
- What is the relationship between intra-urban transportation innovations and the relocation of residential areas within the urban area?
- What explains the distribution of world hunger?

While human geography shares these questions — and similar ones — with other social sciences, geography is distinguished from other disciplines not by its subject matter but rather by its perspective. The geographic perspective involves a concern for the arrangement and distribution of human phenomena. While sociologists, economists and geographers may be equally concerned with the steel industry, there are differences in their conceptual framework or perspective. Economists may examine strategies developed by American steel companies to compete with foreign producers. Sociologists might study techniques used by blue collar workers to socialize new employees to production norms. But only geographers focus on such issues as how declining supplies of United States mined iron ore have influenced the distribution of steel production facilities in this country.

Out of a concern for describing and explaining the arrangement of human phenomena have developed five basic themes which collectively define modern human geography. What are these themes?

Basic Geographical Themes

Man-Environmental Relationships. Important questions include: "How does the physical environment influence man's behavior?", "How does man respond to the threat of a natural hazard?", "How does man alter the environment?" Geographers are interested in such questions because they shed light on the way environmental influences locate and shape man's activities in an environment.

Location Theory. The basic geographical question asked of any human phenomenon has to do with location, that is, "Why is a particular human activity located where it is?" Geographers have developed theories to explain the location of a variety of human activities such as industries, cities and residential areas. Geographers are also interested in determining the optimal location of activities for planning purposes.

Spatial Interaction. Human geographers are interested in understanding the nature of the link between human activities on the surface of the earth. The term "spatial interaction" reflects this interest. The theme of spatial interaction develops out of the realization that human activities do not exist in isolation; that they depend upon links or connections with other activities; and that the nature of these connections — e.g., transportation and communication networks — affect the location and functioning of such activities.

Spatial Diffusion. Human geographers do not limit themselves solely to examining the location patterns of human activities at one point in time. Under certain circumstances existing patterns result from the spread of the phenomena being considered over time and space. This is a process referred to as spatial diffusion.

Regionalization. Often the location patterns of phenomena are so complex that geographers have developed classification systems to describe them. Geographically oriented classification is called regionalization and is one of geography's oldest themes.

In the following section are five activities, one associated with each of the five basic geographic themes. Each activity presents but one way in which the theme can be developed. In each case an effort is made to enhance the potential for each activity to contribute to the guidelines' emphasis on the domains of knowledge, values and social participation.

Objectives

Given data on tornado activity in the United States, students will:

1. Formulate and defend different hypotheses to explain variation in tornado-related deaths.
2. Distinguish between objective physical conditions and human perceptions of these conditions.
3. Apply whatever hypotheses are generated to an explanation of some identified local natural hazard.
4. Analyze and evaluate conclusions with respect to the formulation of public policy concerning the protection of the populace from natural hazards.

Activity

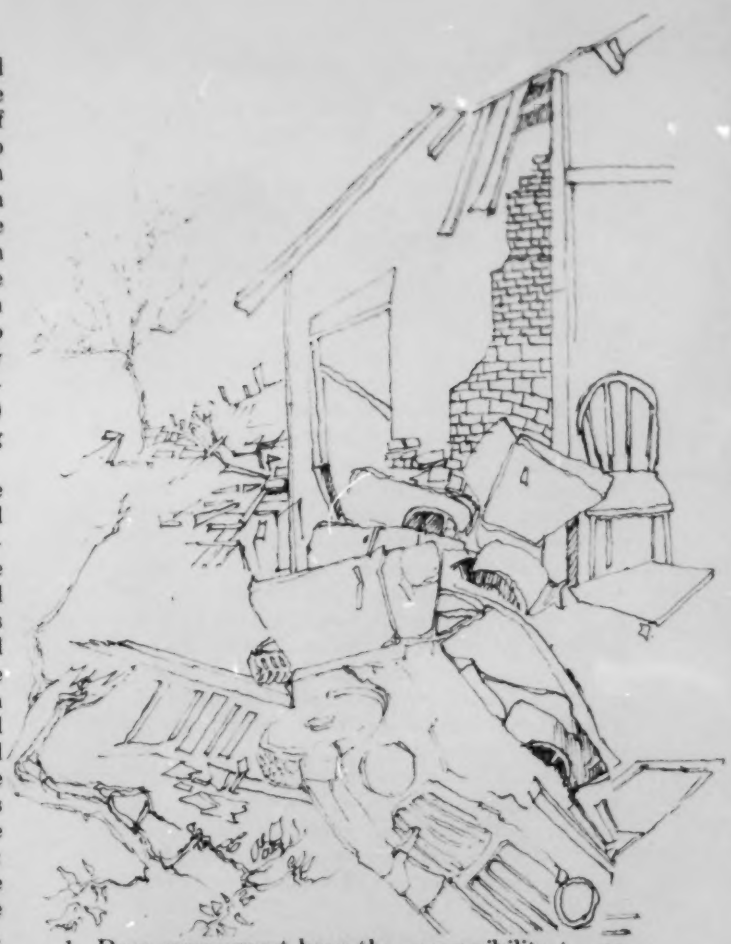
Students are presented with a fairly straight-

forward and factual generalization: In the United States the number of tornado-caused deaths in the South is strikingly higher than it is in the rest of the nation. Students are then asked to develop hypotheses which can be used to explain such regional variation. Next, the teacher provides an opportunity for students to examine a review of the existing tornado literature. Students are then asked to re-evaluate their hypotheses in light of the published evidence. Students should identify in their hypotheses such factors as: a) tornado potential measured in terms of tornado frequency and population density, b) the incidence of nocturnal tornadoes, c) severity of tornadoes, d) housing quality and e) quality of the warning system.

Students may then note that the evidence presented in the activity suggests that the regional variation observed may result, not from environmentally related differences, but rather from the way people respond to the threat of natural hazards. It is further suggested that people's responses are based on their *perception* of natural hazards rather than on objective reality. The students are then encouraged to develop a research project of their own concerning a local natural hazard. The purpose of this project is to test and explore the tentative conclusions drawn from the tornado activity study. Upon completion of this research, students are asked to discuss, analyze and evaluate their findings. An important question: What are the implications of your findings for the formulation of public policy designed to protect the populace from such natural hazards as forest fire, flooding, drought, earthquakes, storms, hurricanes, tornadoes and hail?

How does this activity contribute to the various domains? First, students are involved in hypothesis formation, examination of data and evaluation of hypotheses. They are exposed to some of the problems involved in trying to deal with such variables as severity, incidence, warning system, etc. They may also acquire information on a particular natural hazard.

Second, students may be involved in a consideration of the role that government plays in protecting people against themselves. Given the generalization that people base their response to natural hazards on their perception of reality rather than on objective reality, it is possible to ask, "Does the government have a responsibility to go beyond warning people of potential danger — e.g., through a tornado alert system?" Must or should the government require people to take certain steps when a warning is sounded? There is an important ethical question here that should interest students: a similar problem exists with respect to requiring automobile passengers and drivers to wear seat belts and motorcycle riders to wear motocycle helmets. The underlying questions may be phrased as:



1. Does government have the responsibility to see to it that people protect themselves from either man-made or environmental hazards?
2. Does the government have the right to coerce people who are reluctant to protect themselves? If yes, then does this constitute an abridgment of freedom? If no, then what ought to be done to reduce the tragic incidence of death and maiming?

In the domain of social participation, this activity provides students with the conceptual framework needed to identify a number of issues currently faced in their own community. For instance, consider floodplain zoning. It should seem that land use projects should not be located on a floodplain since, by definition, this is an area subject to periodic though irregular inundation by water. However, people do not respond to objective reality. It is believed that flooding occurs in cycles and that dams built upstream can prevent all flooding. On the basis of these and other perceptions concerning flooding, homes, factories and schools are placed on the floodplain — with inevitable flood damage. An understanding of these relationships provides the background needed to develop an informed position of floodplain zoning.

Objectives

Given the requirements of the game and the nature

of the data presented, students will:

1. Reach a decision as to the location of a hypothetical factory after synthesizing a variety of different data.
2. Identify and describe the decision-making process, specifically citing the relationship between incomplete data and decisions, and the nature of the trade-offs that invariably accompany choices in which values compete.

Activities

This activity involves a role-playing game in which students form management teams and participate in decisions necessary to locate the Metfab Company, a fictitious metal fabricating corporation. Students should recognize that locations selected for industrial activities — and other types of activities — result from complex, though not always logical, decision-making.

Each team is made up of five members: president, sales manager, production and purchasing officer, personnel manager, and treasurer. Students are asked to assume the various management team roles. Individual team members are given specific information related to their role in the form of maps and tables. Team members communicate this information to their associates. The synthesized information is used as the basis for an industrial location decision. Both the available data and group dynamics are such that different groups may be expected to make different locational choices. Being confronted with different choices is valuable since this not only stimulates student involvement but also highlights the possibility that several different industrial locations may prove to be almost equally desirable.

In this activity students learn a number of useful skills. They are required to synthesize some rather technical data, while keeping in mind a particular point of view. They must communicate their thinking which is of a technical nature to other group members. They are placed in a position of having to weigh diverse data presented from divergent points of view — and still reach a mutually agreeable decision. Students practice all of these skills while considering a variety of factors involved in the location process.

Perhaps the most useful and important contribution to the value domain results in part from what is not considered in this activity. Students begin to sense the complex processes that are involved in decision-making. They begin to recognize that even though they have been provided with a good deal of information, they certainly have not been given total information. The teacher can emphasize the notion that complex decision-making is never based on total information. Students can then empathize with an individual entrepreneur who must decide on a location for his store — knowing that location is a major factor in success — without the benefit of total information. On a more general level students may become more sensitive to the problems faced by the President of the United States who must reach decisions of global consequences with less than total information.

Members of committees in the "real world" are involved in many of the same activities as are the participants in the "Metfab" activity. Thus, the activity provides students with an opportunity to practice a number of transferable data interpretation and communication skills. At the same time, they learn that human activities are not located randomly, that certain factors must be considered in their location. Thus, as future members of a local school board, they will need to critically appraise the proposed location of a new school. Similarly, as members of a Chamber of Commerce, they may be asked to contribute to a study which, given the locational characteristics of that town, seeks to determine what sorts of industry should be encouraged to locate in their town.

Objectives

In this activity, called "Distance and Human Behavior," students are acquainted with the concept known as "spatial interaction." Upon completion of this unit, students will:

1. Define the term "employee absenteeism" in accurate, operational terms.
2. Cite the factors related to absenteeism.
3. Construct and interpret a scattergram.
4. Construct an hypothesis that would best explain absenteeism.
5. Cite and explain the concept known as "positive correlation."
6. Cite and explain the function of both "proximity" and "accessibility" as both relate to absenteeism.
7. Apply concepts and principles learned to novel situations in which spatial interaction is a factor.
8. Evaluate specific examples of current public policy in which spatial interaction has not been taken into consideration.

Activities

In this activity students are asked to do research for a manufacturing company which is experiencing a high level of employee absenteeism. The students investigate factors associated with absenteeism other than Christmas, long weekends, and the World Series. The fictitious company makes all of its records available to the student researchers.

The students with the assistance of the teacher begin by developing a research strategy. Typically, they start by defining employee absenteeism precisely. They then develop a series of hypotheses related to the employees which may possibly explain absenteeism: age, job status (blue collar, white collar), marital status, years of employment, and distance of home place from work place. Scattergramming can then be introduced as a way of examining the relationship between the employee

variables (age, years of employment, distance) and absenteeism. The researcher-student finds that only distance of employee home place from work place seems to be positively related to absenteeism. That is to say, the level of spatial interaction — as measured by absenteeism — between worker home place and work place is related to the distance separating the two. When driving time, which measures accessibility, is substituted for physical distance, which measures proximity, an even stronger relationship is established. It appears that level of spatial interaction is influenced more by distance measured in *time* rather than *mileage*.

Additional scattergrams relating driving time to absenteeism for each of the employee attributes thought to be associated with absenteeism (e.g., married vs. single, blue collar vs. white collar) can then be constructed. The results are presented to the manufacturing company in the form of a report. The students are encouraged to make recommendations to the company on the basis of their findings.

In this activity students are introduced to and have an opportunity to use scattergramming. They determine the sorts of data which can be plotted on scattergrams and what conclusions (*about relationships*) can be drawn. They gain some experience in developing operational definitions and hypotheses. In addition, some fundamental notions related to spatial interaction are developed. For example, the students are introduced to the relationship describing how the level of interaction between places varies with the distance separating them. Furthermore, when the distinction is made between physical distance and travel time, students are introduced to the difference between proximity and accessibility. They find that the accessibility between activities is a better predictor of the extent to which these activities will interact than is simple physical distance.

In this activity students develop a relationship between levels of interaction and accessibility. For example, the higher the degree of accessibility, the shorter the time involved in driving to work; the higher the level of spatial interaction, the lower the level of absenteeism. Using this positive relationship between the levels of interaction and accessibility as background, and recognizing that level of interaction influences the functioning of linked activities — absenteeism affected factory efficiency — students are asked to consider the implications of technological change in the area of transportation and communication. For example, when plans to construct supersonic transport (SST) aircraft were scrapped in the United States, conservationists heralded the stoppage as a victory for the environment. One might wonder, on the other hand, how the increased level of interaction which would result from the use of the SST would affect the countries linked by it. For instance, would the threat of war diminish if world leaders (by flying on a SST) would have the capacity to meet face to face within hours of a perceived provocation?

Perhaps the most significant contribution of this activity to the social participation domain involves the transfer of the spatial interaction notions to a number of societal issues. For example, the locations for social service agencies e.g., the Center for Older Americans, are often selected on the basis of staff considerations exclusively — accessibility to support agencies, office space, and access to governmental agencies. The informed citizen might wonder whether a location selected on the basis of such considerations best reflects *client* locational requirements. Specifically the client may ask whether the center is so located as to serve only those older people living close by, while effectively restricting the rest of the elderly from close interaction with the center. The use of spatial interaction concepts in evaluating the functioning of a variety of public facilities and services adds insights to the evaluation which are not otherwise possible.

Objectives

This activity, which deals with spatial diffusion, is designed to acquaint students with the factors that speed up or slow down the transmission of ideas from one location to another. Upon completion of the activity, students will:

1. Define the concept "spatial diffusion."
2. Identify "culture," "cultural change," and "resistance to cultural change."
3. Cite examples of the variable or differential rate of cultural diffusion.
4. Cite instances of and name the sources of ideas, inventions, techniques, etc., which are ordinarily labeled indigenously American.
5. Analyze some of the implications of cultural ideas and techniques that have flowed from the West to the non-Western world.
6. Evaluate often-repeated slogans in terms of their implications for United States public policy.

Activities

In this activity students view a two-part filmstrip. In the first segment they view and discuss a number of frames showing buildings in various parts of the world. Students try to locate the buildings by region after being provided with cultural clues. The second part of the filmstrip includes pictures of downtown sections of modern cities around the world, which the students also try to locate regionally.

In the discussion which follows the viewing of the filmstrip, students try to determine why they found the first set of frames relatively easy to locate, while the frames in the second set are almost impossible to identify. The explanation is related to differential rates of diffusion. The first set showed traditional buildings — religious buildings, small shops and residences. These buildings represent segments of culture which resist change, here

manifested by the retention of traditional architectural styles. As a result, distinctive cultural clues could be easily spotted. Throughout the world the downtown areas of modern cities represent segments of culture which are overthrowing traditional barriers and are therefore very receptive to new ideas, here manifested by modern architectural styles. The consequence is a trend towards uniformity in downtown sections of cities throughout the world.

Ordinarily ideas do not usually spread unimpeded through an area. More typically barriers, both physical and cultural, exist which absorb, reflect, or slow down the flow of the phenomena being diffused. Sometimes barriers allow certain ideas through while others are rejected. The fundamental aspects of spatial diffusion are illustrated in this activity. In addition, students are given an opportunity to develop their skills in reflecting on their behavior and drawing conclusions from these reflections.

In activities dealing with spatial diffusion students have an opportunity to reflect on the notion of global interdependence. For example, using the general topic of diffusion introduced in this activity as a springboard, they can begin to think about "just how American is America." The diffusion literature indicates that many of the things we label "uniquely American" were in fact developed elsewhere, diffused to the United States, and adapted to our own purpose. An excellent, humorous, but factually accurate description of this issue is included in Ralph Linton's article, "One Hundred Percent American," originally printed in *American Mercury*, April, 1937, but since reprinted in many social science anthologies.

On another level students can be encouraged to consider some of the implications of the trend towards uniformity, in addition to architecture, which have resulted from the diffusion of items from the West to the non-Western world. For example, what obligations does the western world have to the rest of the world because of its activities as a change agent? There are those who argue that developing countries should be left to their own devices in order to solve their population problems. We must realize, however, that these population problems have resulted, in part, from the diffusion of death control techniques to these countries from the West.

If (as the result of classroom discussions stimulated by this activity) a student is able to develop a more differentiated perspective on global interdependence at both the cognitive and affective levels, then the activity can make a profound contribution in the domain of social participation. As citizens, students constantly will be bombarded by statements such as "America first," and "Get us out of the U.N.," and concepts such as "spaceship earth." A well developed understanding of global interdependence will provide the framework needed to make reasoned judgments about issues which arise from such statements and concepts.

Objectives

This activity, called "Hunger Regions of the World," deals with the concept known as regionalization. Upon completion of the activity, students will:

1. Interpret geographical data concerned with caloric intake on a world map.
2. Define and use *choropleth* mapping for the purpose of arranging random data into specific patterns.
3. Define and explain the concept known as *covariance.*
4. Use covariance for the purposes of identifying variables associated with hunger.
5. Utilize *scattergramming* techniques to identify variables associated with hunger.
6. Develop and defend a coherent position with respect to a policy on world hunger.

Activity

In this activity students develop a mapping skill which can be used in a variety of contexts. At the same time they are introduced to the shortcomings and potential pitfalls involved in using this particular technique. The students learn that a geographically oriented classification system must include not only a grouping dimension but a spatial dimension as well. They discover for themselves the regional variations which exist in the distribution of world hunger and begin to piece together an explanation of the distribution observed. Simultaneously they are exposed to the concept of and techniques for portraying spatial covariation.

In this exercise students are confronted with world data indicating average daily caloric intake arranged alphabetically by country. Their task is to display the data in a geographically oriented fashion, and to make sense of the data array produced.

The obvious first step in displaying the data in a "geographically oriented fashion" involves plotting the observations on a world map. Students quickly realize that if a pattern is to be discerned, the observations must be grouped into classes. At this point the choropleth mapping technique can be introduced, the use of which will result in the establishment of a number of hunger and non-hunger regions for the world. With the choropleth map of hunger as a dependent variable, students can be asked to identify variables which co-vary spatially with hunger. Covariations can be established through further choropleth mapping and/or scattergramming. Using this strategy the students can begin to make sense of patterns of hunger existing in the world.

That phase of the activity at which students are asked to identify variables which co-vary spatially with hunger would provide an excellent opportunity for them to clarify their beliefs, attitudes and values with respect to the distribution of hunger. Students are likely to differ in terms of their thinking on this subject. This segment of the activity would allow them to articulate these thoughts and would provide students with a means to demonstrate their validity.

As informed citizens, people should keep in mind a number of generalizations concerning the global distribution of a variety of phenomena and the relationships among these phenomena. It is not particularly useful to know that the estimated average daily caloric intake in El Salvador is 1,840. It is however, useful to know that Central and South America, South and East Asia, and Central Africa are hunger regions. This is especially useful information when it is combined with distributions of other phenomena such as population growth rates and gross national product. Generalizations of this sort act as a workable framework within which a person can view current events. Activities such as the one described encourage students to internalize "geographic facts" at a scale which will later be useful to them as a citizen.

RESOURCES

The single best source of further information on the teaching of geography is the National Council for Geographic Education (NCGE), 115 N. Marion Street, Oak Park, IL 60301. Teachers wanting information on geographic concepts, teaching strategies, and material sources should request 1) the NCGE List of Publications for teachers, 2) complimentary copies of the *Journal of Geography* and 3) the name of the Indiana Coordinator of NCGE who can provide assistance.

Action Pak, a multi-media kit on the subject of population growth, provides students with very concise information concerning the impact of population on the quality of life throughout the world. For information on UNESCO publications, write: UNESCO Publications Center, P.C. Box 433, Murray Hill Station, New York, NY 10016.

The Population Reference Bureau, Inc. in Washington, DC, provides many materials of direct interest for geography students. The bureau's publications list can be obtained by writing to the bureau at 1755 Massachusetts Ave., N.W., Washington, DC 20036.

Teachers may also want to consult local and state organizations usually found listed in the telephone directory under the following titles:

City and County Planning Commissioners
Census Use Study
County Zoning Board
Government Office — City, County, State
Metropolitan Development Department
Municipal Planning Commission
Urban Planing Commissions
Urban Renewal

The Social Studies School Services Catalog, 10,000 Culver Blvd., Culver City, CA 90230, lists games, simulations, paperbacks, filmstrips and various visual aids under a geography heading. This is a very useful catalog for any social studies teacher.

Global Studies seventh grade

Introduction

Rationale. Indiana recommends teaching about other world cultures within the social studies curriculum. Events have made it abundantly clear that an informed citizenry must know more than traditional European history and geography. Events throughout the world — that part of the world which in the past has scarcely impinged on our awareness — suggest that our very survival depends upon our ability to handle the complexities of population growth, scarce resource allocation, organized aggression and land redistribution.

Overview

There are a number of traditional and more recent approaches to the study of World Civilization. What are they?

Historical-Geographical. This is the oldest and perhaps the most frequent approach, emphasizing consideration of the physical features and chronological history of different nations. It has the virtue of being simple and understandable. Further, many textbooks and teaching aids still use this approach. The weaknesses are that it is simplistic, is no longer used by social science disciplinarians, does not deal with issues and does not often motivate students.

Interdisciplinary. This approach combines the techniques, concepts and methodologies of different social science disciplines, e.g., the combined insights of political science, anthropology, history, economics and geography. A given nation, land mass, or society may be examined in systematic detail through the insights of the separate disciplines. The strength of this approach is that it allows for considerable in-depth examination, is quite flexible, permits exploration of problems, and lends itself to a good many different audiovisual aids and resources. The weakness is that a problems orientation may get lost in a welter of data. Similarly the problems and methodology of the social scientist may not pose real problems to students.

The Area Studies Approach. This is different than the interdisciplinary approach in that the focus is on a given area, as Africa below the Sahara; or on a particular society, as Japan; or on a particular culture, as the Bantu. Students are asked to look at a particular area in considerable depth and being to bear in their examination as much data from different sources — not necessarily disciplinary sources — as they can. The strength is that, like the interdisciplinary approach, it is flexible, allows the indepth study and for considerable diversity in method and materials. The weakness is that it, too, may or may not focus on a problem. There is also the possibility that one loses relatedness or connectedness with other areas.

Topical. World Civilization courses may organize themselves around a broad theme or topic, such as "Religion Around the World," or "Nations in Various Stages of Development." Weaknesses and strengths are about the same as those of the Interdisciplinary or Area Studies approaches.

Problems or Issues. Less frequently a World Civilization teacher organizes the curriculum around a particular persistent issue, such as conflict and aggression, ethnocentrism or allocation of scarce resources. The obvious strength of this approach is that it allows for considerable student input, deals with student interests, is inherently flexible and can utilize a variety of creative activities. The weakness is that there is not a great deal of ready-made or available material, it is a somewhat tricky approach for many teachers, and it will require interpretation for parents and school people who may not understand the point. It could lack systematic connectedness as related institutions and issues may not be considered.

Objectives

The following two sections, on Africa and Asia, attempt to use an eclectic approach. The objectives and activities are not organized in conventional text book form, but rather are focused around the problem of ethnocentrism and the topic of interdependence. A variety of activities and skills are emphasized, allowing for possible diversity and adaptability to different student populations. There are both traditional emphasis on vocabulary building and map reading and some innovative activities, as those which deal with such charged issues as racial and cultural stereotypes.

AFRICA

Knowledge

Students will:

1. Locate specific areas on a globe and on maps of different projections.
2. Define such terms as "ethnocentrism," "culture," "tribe," "interdependence," "nuclear family," "extended family," "race," "physical characteristic," and "diversity."
3. Define the term "cultural lag" and apply it to selected phenomena in both Africa and the United States.
4. Compare such terms as "modern," "technologically advanced," and "developing," as well as point out the deficiencies of such terms from the standpoint of social scientists.

Activities

An introductory activity is to ask students to paint a word picture of a "typical African." When this is done, ask them what would be wrong with

asking for a word picture of a "typical American." If the concept "cultural, racial and physical diversity" is understood, use a map of Africa to point out the following factors:

1. The comparison between the size of the entire African continent and the entire North and South American continents.
2. The very considerable difference between: Berbers, Moroccans, Ashanti, Ibo, Hausa, Bantu and Uoruba. Potentially stimulating questions could center around:
   a. The relationship between closeness to the equator and skin color.
   b. The function of skin color in an equatorial climate.
3. The location of natural resources of very considerable value, as oil, gold, diamonds, gas and water power. Questions that might prove fruitful include:
   a. What does the term "natural resource" mean?
   b. Are human beings "natural resources?"
   c. If Africa suddenly did not exist, what might happen (i.e., "What would be the economic implications for the United States?")?
4. A comparison of the transportation and the communication network of Central Africa with, for instance, the Middle West. Center discussion around the presence or absence of roads, highways, railroad lines and navigable waterways as these relate to the exploitation of natural resources.
5. The physical diversity of Africa. Compare the desert, jungle, veldt, mountain, etc., with student stereotypes of Africans and Africa. Encourage them to deal with the "Tarzan" image of Africa, i.e., Africa as a land of jungles with subservient, superstitious natives. Ask students to speculate on the origins of such stereotypes. Group and individual projects include:
   a. Using old, back issues of the *National Geographic*, ask students to describe and analyze different images of Africa and Africans held by white Europeans and Americans.
   b. Comparing recent maps of the emerging republics of Africa with older maps to be found in storage cabinets, old copies of the *National Geographic*, discarded texts or old newspaper files ask students to do the following:
      1) Identify the term "colonialism."
      2) Trace the history of European colonialism in Africa.
      3) Compare the African colonial experience with that of the American colonies in the 1770s.
      4) Compare the present-day boundaries of African states with an anthropological map of tribal areas. Speculate on the reason for present-day tribal conflict, as between the Nigerians and the Ibos, or the present-day conflict between Colonial Portugese and black Africans.
6. Using a map, pinpoint a) the presence of valuable natural resources, and b) European colonial outposts. Encourage students to relate the two phenomena.
7. By means of a chart, ask students to compare North America and Africa with respect to: a) size, b) climatic features, c) topographic features, and d) natural resources.

8. Using the raw data from the chart, ask students to make inferences with respect to:
   a. The degree of cultural homogeneity and heterogeneity.
   b. The relationship between natural physical barriers and the development of industry.
   c. The meaning and implications of the different linguistic families in Africa.
9. Focus research on one newly emerging African republic, e.g. Nigeria. Compare and contrast the extended family and the compound life of Nigerians with the nuclear family of the United States.

Values

An activity that might be used to conclude a study of Africa might be the construction of a chart in which the characteristics of the two words

"modern" and "developing" are compared. Students should identify the innate value judgments in the term "modern."

American youngsters tend to feel that the nuclear family is customary, traditional and perhaps desirable. Compare *monogamy* with the practices of *polygamy*, subdividing this term into *polyandry* and *polygyny*. Polygamous relations are, of course, illegal in this society. Students might speculate on the function and advantages of polygamous marriages in Africa and elsewhere.

Collect eight pictures or examples of different kinds of African tribal art. Point out to students the meaning of "representational," i.e., "A person should look like a person; a house should look like a house." Compare traditional representative calendar art with the deliberate distortions of figures and animals in certain kinds of tribal art. Leading questions might include:

1. What is the difference between this art and traditional representative art?
2. Why are these distortions (in certain tribal art forms) deliberately introduced?
3. Do you think that African art forms are attractive ("lovely," "aesthetic," "pleasing")?
4. Why is it a fact that many Americans will pay a lot of money to own African art forms?

An extremely interesting — although obviously controversial and sensitive issue — is ingrained white American perceptions of Africans as "primitive." The racial slurs of an Archie Bunker are relevant at this time, e.g., his use of the epithet "jungle bunnies." Introduce the concept of "dehumanization," i.e., using language to degrade others. It can be argued that both Europeans and Americans have "dehumanized" persons of a darker skin color.

1. What is the meaning of the term "dehumanization?"
2. What examples of dehumanization can your students describe which they personally encountered, observed or discerned?
3. What are examples of dehumanization on a broad scale?
4. Why do individuals from one society wish to dehumanize others?

Americans tend to regard Christian missionary efforts throughout the world as a very good thing. However, it is clear that such missionary efforts are often regarded with deep suspicion by others. Using either the movie or the book *Hawaii* by James Michener (who interestingly enough, began his career in the 1930s as a social studies specialist) as a case study, describe and explain the original purpose of missionary activities. Consider the values that were involved (e.g., desire to convert, desire to build an economic empire, the desire to retain traditional customs). Extrapolate from the case of Hawaii to (the former colony) Belgian West Africa for the purposes of framing and examining different hypotheses. Contrast both Hawaii and Belgian West Africa with missionary activities in the American colonies of the 17th and 18th centuries.

An extended but most interesting project for an entire class might consist of mounting African art in the display cases in the front halls of your school. Examples of African art may be obtained from the Alva Museum collection of Time Life, Inc. magazines (e.g., *National Geographic*), pieces borrowed from parents or other community members, color plates from books. Students should research each piece, perhaps relate each to a large color map of Africa and properly label and describe all examples. An entire day could be labeled African Art Day and students could be asked to function as guides in explaining and interpreting the collection to others in the school.

As a variation on the activity above, students may put together a traveling exhibit, including research, for display in the local library, community center, etc. In this case the students and their work function as an important resource, with the emphasis on global understanding for the entire community.

SOUTHEAST ASIA

In the following section, focus will be on Southeast Asia, Japan and China. The organizing concepts include: changing perceptions of Asia; the continuum from undeveloped to developed; the uniqueness of cultures. Once again, map reading skills are emphasized. However, for purposes of contrast, the limitations of traditional comparison-contrast thinking will be pointed out.

Knowledge

Students will:

1. Define the terms "undeveloped," "underdeveloped," "developing" and "developed" on a continuum, providing the defining criteria of each term.
2. Explain the limitations of the terms in the continuum above.
3. Describe and explain the uses of different maps, e.g., political, geographic, cultural and linguistic.
4. Analyze the components that are involved in the growth of a nation to the status of a Great Power.
5. Express, through the use of nonlinear, artistic modes, the significance and meaning of such oriental Asian institutions and concepts as yin-yang, tea ceremony and flower arrangements.

Activities

Locate a variety of different maps of Southeast Asia which illustrate such features as: language grouping, topographical and climatic factors, political and historical change. Center attention on the Mekong Delta. Suggested questions and topics include:

1. Which of the different maps illustrate the following characteristics of a river.
   a. as a source of water for irrigation?
   b. as a means of defining political boundaries?
   c. as a transportation artery?
   d. as a source of aquatic food?
   e. as a means of recreation?
   f. as a source of hydroelectric power?
   g. as a way of providing cultural identification?
2. How many different political powers have controlled the area?
3. Speculate on the impact of a developed Mekong River, dealing especially with such questions as:
   a. How much larger population could a developed Mekong River support?
   b. Would it make a difference if China were extremely interested in the development of the Mekong River?
   c. Would it or would it not be in the best interest of the United States for any Communist or rival power to be involved in area development? If students say yes, then deal with this question: Ought the United States then give active financial aid and technical support for such development?

Students tend to think that a large land mass and a large population are essential for development into a great industrial power. Using a map of Japan and Russia or the United States deal with the following questions:

1. Why is Japan, without a large land mass, nevertheless an important industrial power?
2. What other factors may be involved?
3. After the term "cohesion" has been understood, ask if the cohesiveness of the society is also a factor? What about the training, education and discipline of the population?

Using magazines from the mid-1940s, the 1950s and the 1970s, ask students:

1. What has been the nature of the change of perception of China by the United States?
2. Specifically how do magazine illustrations, cartoons and pictures reflect differing perceptions of China?
3. As best as students can determine, what is now the perception of China? Has this perception changed since former President Nixon visited China?
4. Looking into the future, what might be the perception of China by the year 1980?

Madame Butterfly. After study have students:

1. Discuss the image of Cho Cho San.
2. Contrast the image of Japan during World War II.
   a. What is the image of Japan today?
   b. What are the implications of America's relations with Japan of a given perception at a given moment in time?

Locate pictures by a Chinese artist.

Compare a typical Chinese landscape which contains people with, say an Italian Renaissance landscape. Note the difference in the treatment of the people: In the Chinese painting it is likely that the people are small, almost insignificant, and that they blend in with the physical environment. In the Italian picture, it is likely that the people are much larger and that the physical environment functions simply as background. Discuss the significance of this fact.

Collect pictures of Japanese industrial imports (examples: Sony, Hitachi, Toshiba, Datsun, Honda, Yamaha and Toyota).

1. Why are American industrialists quite worried about the Japanese "invasion" of the American market?
2. If the Japanese are increasingly efficient in their industrial production, what might be the reasons?
3. It is clear that extension of the family is an important Japanese cultural belief and practice. Would this have any bearing on the tightly disciplined industrial work force? (There have been many articles and editorials in *Time*, *Newsweek*, *Fortune* and other journals dealing with this phenomenon.)

An absorbing project for more verbal students would be research into the Chinese concept yin and yang. Students can explain this to the class by using art and poetry.

Bringing The World Into Your Classroom, Curriculum Series No. 13, 1968, is one of many, varied publications for global studies produced by the National Council for the Social Studies. It presents a sampling of ideas, a cross section of projects, and some examples of programs which have been used in the Glens Falls (NY) City School District. The format is presented by grade level and in a form which teachers should find easy to use. Contact the council at 1515 Wilson Blvd., Arlington, VA 22209 for more information about global publications.

International Understanding at School is a UNESCO Associated School Project publication. The promotion of international understanding and peace through school education has been from the outset one of UNESCO's basic aims. The Associated Schools Project has served for more than 20 years as a means of extending to educational institutions in many different countries, special programs designed to increase knowledge of world problems and international understanding through the study of other peoples and cultures. Further information may be obtained concerning all UNESCO publications from UNESCO, Place de Fontenoy, 75700 Paris, France.

The Family of Man is an inquiry-oriented, interdisciplinary, multi-media social studies program. It is designed to help students learn how to be both nation-minded and world-minded. Through a series of family and community studies, the program develops an understanding and appreciation of human behavior, inquiry, geographic, and data-gathering skills; and concepts and generalizations from the social sciences. The series includes an Ahanti family of Ghana, a kibbutz family in Israel, Quenchua family of Peru, Japanese family and Russian family which would be useful to a global studies course. Available from Selective Educational Equipment, Inc. (SEE), 3 Bridge St., Newton, MA 02195.

Both Americans and Japanese drink tea. Nevertheless the Japanese tea ceremony is unique to Japan. Some students may wish to do research on this custom, perhaps drawing on assistance from a local oriental expert or a Japanese individual who is knowledgeable about this. Students can re-enact this ceremony in class.

RESOURCES

Baldicer (Balanced Diet Certificate) is a game which simulates the problem of feeding the world's people. Each participant acts as food coordinator for 150 million people. The objective is to help the players experience the interdependence of world economy. Players: 10-20. Time: 2-3 hours. Debriefing time: 1-3 hours. Available from Educational Manpower, Inc., P.O. Box 4272-F, Madison, WI 53711. Many other materials are listed in their catalog.

Psychology

Rationale. The most acceptable current definition of psychology is "Psychology is the scientific study of behavior." Although most persons still tend to think of psychologists as concerned exclusively with something called "mental life," dreams, fantasies, etc., in fact, psychologists are as much concerned with what people *do* as what they *think*. For many centuries psychology was a minor division of philosophy. In the 19th century, however, psychology became a separate discipline, with its own rationale, procedures and concerns. By employing the method of science, with its emphasis on hypothesizing, observation, quantification and verification, psychology has been able to make two different kinds of contributions. First, it has destroyed many prejudices, mythological beliefs and erroneous assumptions by demonstrating that they could not be supported by verifiable evidence. Second, psychology has been able to discover many dependable generalizations about human behavior that have had extremely practical application in fields as diverse as space technology, animal behavior, international relations, administration, human learning and industry.

Traditionally, psychology has been an elective subject, usually reserved for students with above-average ability and motivation. However, there are persuasive reasons for believing that the study of psychology has value for all students. By gaining insight into their own behavior — specifically into their own motivations, goals, fears, developmental patterns and value structure — students are better equipped both to understand themselves, their peers and the important adults in their lives.

Overview

There are a number of possible approaches to the teaching of psychology. What are they?

Survey. Popular for many years at both the college and secondary level is the "survey" approach. Usually a single textbook is used, in conjunction with a lecture and recitation. The emphasis is on a brief description of the traditional and newer fields, methods, procedures, concerns, topics and findings of all branches of psychology. Thus, the course begins with a consensus-definition of the field, describes the scientific process, mentions some of the sub-specialties such as learning, perception and industrial psychology, and explains some of the more standard findings. The advantages of this approach are that it is traditional, there are many texts organized in this fashion, it is comprehensive and it does serve to introduce a large field. The disadvantages are that it is a "mile wide and an inch deep," i.e., sacrifices depth for the benefit of coverage, is not problems-oriented and tends to leave students confused and unable to assimilate the huge amounts of scattered information.

Experiential. This approach tends to focus on selected experiences, familiar to students, and to make use of behavior laboratories. Thus, in place of a comprehensive description, the class is likely to concentrate on relatively few themes, mainly motivation, perception and communication. A laboratory is often used to make psychological findings more concrete and understandable. Discussion groups often replace large group lectures and recitations. The advantages to this approach: it reduces a cumbersome collection of material to a manageable amount; it can focus on student concerns and problems; it has found favor with many psychologists who wish to promote emphasis on their method, approach and techniques. The disadvantages are that it may require specialized facilities that few high schools have; it requires a more highly trained instructor; it may require more personnel to handle details.

Social Psychology. Because the concerns of that sub-specialty of psychology called "social psychology" are likely to be closer to the interests and understanding level of students, there is a tendency to focus exclusively on it as an introduction to the entire field. Thus, in place of either descriptive information on everything from brain physiology to Freudian psychoanalysis, this approach deals with such subjects as prejudice, the transmission of rumor, factors affecting conformity, and the behavior of people in different groups. The advantage is that, because it is both specialized and relevant to students, this approach tends to be perceived favorably by students. Further, there is considerable transfer of social psychology to the other social sciences, anthropology, sociology and geography. The disadvantages are that it is not, in the technical sense of the term, an introduction; the findings are sufficiently complex to be easily misinterpreted, especially by youngsters; it necessarily deals in considerable depth with controversial topics, such as the learning of racial prejudices.

Human Problems. Similar to social psychology but with a fairly heavy emphasis on counseling and clinical psychology, the human problems approach is perhaps the most recent trend in the teaching of psychology at the high school level. The focus is on the kinds of inter- and intrapersonal conflict that tend to produce such familiar problems as alienation, marital discord, and adolescent-parent generation gap. There may also be an emphasis on deviant behavior, e.g., alcoholism, drug addiction, and various pathologies. The advantages are that because it is quite directly concerned with human problems, and student concerns, it is therefore highly motivating. The disadvantages are that it requires a teacher with specific training in clinical

psychology, there is not always material written at the level of student understanding and it deals with inherently controversial topics.

The Program

The objectives and activities described below are based on the assumption that there are distinct learning advantages to focusing on selected topics, adopting a problems orientation and engaging the active participation of students. The activities selected draw from a number of the sub-specialties of psychology and also make use of some of the more recent experimental findings.

Knowledge

Objectives

Students will:

1. Identify the basic concepts relating to long-term memory associations.
2. Define and illustrate: association; long-term vs. short-term memory; free association; interlocking structure.
3. Relate selected concepts concerning memory to their own learning experiences.
4. Define the terms: face validity and predictive validity.
5. Relate the concept "gullibility" to the concept "authority" and both terms to the notion of psychologists and psychological testing.
6. Analyze the factors that make accurate personality assessment a difficult enterprise.
7. Distinguish between popular acceptance of a given proposition and what is known as "scientific criteria for determining the validity of evidence."
8. Describe and explain the relationship between cultural patterns and posture.
9. Explain and illustrate cultural influences on their own conceptions of such terms as "modest," "proper," "vulgar," "nice," "aesthetic," (i.e., beautiful, lovely).
10. Interpret and explain the concept known as "interdisciplinary" or "cross disciplinary" as these relate to the disciplines of geography, psychology and anthropology.

Important Concepts

Some — but by no means all — of the more important concepts include: memory; association; interlocking structure; face validity; predictive validity; authority; personality assessment; "criteria for valid scientific evidence"; cultural influence; perception; interdisciplinary and cross disciplinary.

Activities

1. Make up a list of 30 words, 10 of which are the names of fruits. Distribute the fruit names randomly throughout the list. Give copies of the list to the class, and ask students to "free associate" a word for each word on the list. Then make up a table like the one printed below. Note how many times each fruit is associated with another fruit. The finished chart should demonstrate the notion of "interlocking structure" in human memory.

	Apple	Pear	Orange	Banana	Grape	Lime
Apple	1	3	0	5	0	1
Pear	10	0	3	6	0	2
Orange			0			
Banana				0		
Grape					1	
Lime						0

2. The following activity is especially appropriate, for it combines both the psychological problem known as "face validity and predictive validity" with the current popular interest in the ancient pseudoscience, astrology.

   Using the following chart, ask students to check either the True or the False categories, depending on whether they think the item applies to them. Assure students that the test comes from a standard personality profile routinely administered by psychologists. When students are finished, conduct a discussion on the test with an emphasis on the students' perception of whether the individual items accurately described their personality traits. Then, announce that the list of items was excerpted from a newsstand astrology book. Focus on such concepts as: gullibility; faith; the authority of tests and of psychologists; predictive validity; and face validity. For a more complete discussion of this

	True	False
1. You have a great need for other people to like and admire you.	____	____
2. You have a tendency to be critical of yourself.	____	____
3. You have a great deal of unused capacity that you have not turned to your advantage.	____	____
4. While you have some personality weaknesses, you are generally able to compensate for them.	____	____
5. Your sexual adjustment has presented problems for you.	____	____
6. Disciplined and self-controlled outside, you tend to be worrisome and insecure inside.	____	____
7. At times you have serious doubts as to whether you have made the right decision or done the right thing.	____	____
8. You prefer a certain amount of change and variety and become dissatisfied when hemmed in by restrictions and limitations.	____	____
9. You pride yourself as an independent thinker and do not accept others' statements without satisfactory proof.	____	____
10. You have found it unwise to be too frank in revealing yourself to others.	____	____
11. At times you are extroverted, affable, sociable, while at other times you are introverted, wary, reserved.	____	____
12. Some of your aspirations tend to be pretty unrealistic.	____	____
13. Security is one of your major goals in life.	____	____

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Figure 8.4. *A sample of the world's postures. Some of the approximately 1000 different bodily postures into which culture molds the human form. The data are based on examination of photographs in ethnographic literature covering 480 different cultures or subcultures. (Reproduced by permission of the American Anthropological Association. From Gordon W. Hewes, "World Distribution of Certain Postural Habits," American Anthropologist, April 1955, 57(2), 231-244.)*

activity see pages 76 and 77, "Instructor's Guide," *Understanding Psychology* (Del Mar, CA: Ziff-Davis Publishing Company, 1974).

3. Using the chart reproduced below, ask students to react to the following quotations by an anthropologist researcher on human postures throughout the earth:

   "In spite of the tentative nature of my information, I think there is good reason to believe that many postures are not only culturally determined but will exhibit the kinds of geographic distribution we have come to expect for all other features of cultural behavior."

   Specifically, ask students to discuss the following:

   a. Which of these postures seems to you to be intrinsically uncomfortable? Why, then, do certain people use them habitually?
   b. Certain of these postures would be regarded as uncouth, vulgar or as unmannerly. Which ones? Why, then, would the same postures be perceived as proper and acceptable by others?
   c. Are certain of these postures influenced or affected by related notions of sexual propriety, modesty, utility and aesthetics? Which ones? Be specific.

   Point out and discuss how this activity cuts across three disciplinary lines, geography, psychology and anthropology. For more information on this activity, see chapter eight, "Social Psychology," pages 255-256, in N. H. Pronko, *Panorama of Psychology* by N. H. Pronko, (2nd ed.; Monterey, CA: Wadsworth Publishing Company, 1973).

Values

Objectives
Students will:

1. Define the term "optical illusion."
2. Describe and explain what is meant by the expression "the influences of learning and culture on perception."
3. Analyze the various factors that seem to affect our perceptions of both everyday events and our ordinary expectations.
4. Evaluate the influence of culture on a) interpersonal value conflict within our culture, and b) interpersonal value conflict among nations.
5. Define and explain such terms as "role," "stereotype," "sex role," "idealized role," "cultural bias," and "shaping of sex roles."
6. Estimate the extent to which he or she — each student personally — entertains idealized role expectations of males and females.

7. Analyze selected problems (e.g., Feminist Movement, the teaching of home economics to boys, current conflicts in high school and university physical education departments) in terms of the concept, *changing sex roles.*

Important Concepts

Some of the main concepts are optical illusions; cultural influence; influence of learning on perception; expectations (role expectations); inter and intrapersonal conflict; sex role (changing sex roles); stereotype; bias; and idealization.

Activities

1. The following frequently used optical illusions can be used to illustrate the influence of learning and experience on perception. Whereas students tend to be what is known as "philosophically naive realists" who believe that what we perceive is "really" what is "out there," it has been so shown that the issue is much more complex. What we take to be "out there" is influenced to a surprising degree by both our individual learning and our culture. Reproduce the following four optical illusions. Ask students to a) estimate the length of lines A and B compared with each other; b) estimate the lines B and A compared with each other; c) describe the top and bottom of the quadrangle; and d) judge whether the two halves of the diagonal lines are in fact aligned. Tell students the actual nature of the figures, explaining the term "optical illusion." As possible pointers for a discussion, ask:

   a. Can you figure out why most of you made errors in your perceptions of these figures?
   b. Does the term "expectation" have anything to do with your errors?
   c. If you expanded the term "expectation," what broadened social meanings might it have? How do your own social expectations influence what you perceive? Give specific instances.
   d. Why is it that people who visit another, often quite different, culture experience what is known as "cultural shock"? Does this have anything to do with what these persons are accustomed to seeing and hearing?
   e. Can you think of a time recently when you were involved in a serious "hassle" with a friend or parent, only to discover that it was all a matter of a "simple misunderstanding." What does a "simple misunderstanding" have to do with the term "expectations"? And, by the way, why do we call it "simple"?
   f. In what sense do such "expectations," "culturally influenced perceptions" and "simple misunderstandings" figure in international relations?

2. Ask students to complete the following sentences:

   a. What gripes me most about women is . . .

   b. What I like most about women is . . .
   c. What I most like about men is . . .
   d. On the job, a competitive woman is . . .
   e. Women who join movements like women's liberation are . . .
   f. A man who supports women's liberation is . . .
   g. Paying women less than men is . . .
   h. A self-sufficient and intelligent woman is . . .
   i. Warmth and friendliness in a man are . . .
   j. Emotionally, a man should . . .

Using a content analysis of words actually used by the students, find out if certain patterns appear. Ask students to classify these patterns with the following categories:

Reflects bias against men.
Reflects bias against women.
Reflects a popularly held opinion concerning men and women.
Is essentially neutral.

1. Do there appear to be biases in this classroom against either males or females? To what extent are these biases shown?
2. Which one of the 10 statements is concerned with a male or female *role*? How many of the student responses suggest outrage at a violation of an *expected* male or female role?
3. To what extent do concepts about male or female roles appear to be shaped by the popular media, e.g., magazines, cinema, TV?
4. Within a given medium (for instance, *Seventeen* and *Family Circle*) can you distinguish between different conceptions of female roles?
5. Does the culture promote notions of an "idealized" male and female role? If so, can you apply a particular "idealized role" to the following: enterprising junior executive; playboy; football hero; beautiful blonde; the wife of the enterprising junior executive; intellectual; artist; classical musician; rock musician; and ballet dancer. (If you select the ballet dancer, how many students a) automatically assume that it refers to a male, and b) invest the male dancer with unflattering and effeminate traits?)
6. Do students have an accompanying notion that certain male-female traits are inherently *strong* or *weak*? If so, a) what does this mean, and b) where did they pick up these meanings?

Social Participation

Objectives
Students will:

1. Define the term "groupthink" and relate it to the themes of the George Orwell novel, *1984*.
2. Provide illustrations from their own experience of blunders and mistakes that were made as a result of a collective group decision.
3. Identify and describe some of the pressures to conform that arise from participation in a group discussion or activity.
4. List and describe some of the advantages that are thought to accrue from group problem-solving.
5. Relate the notion of "groupthink" to such unsuccessful national enterprises as the abortive Cuban invasion and the Vietnam War. (See the bibliographical reference to the appropriate *Psychology Today* article on the subject.)

Important Concepts
Some of the major concepts include: "groupthink," group influence and conformity.

Activity
Lost on the Moon. Students will get a feeling for the comparative merits of group and individual decision making by confronting the same task, first as individuals and then in groups of four to seven classmates. One hypothetical task, developed specifically for a systematic study of group decision making, involves asking subjects to imagine themselves as astronauts who have crash-landed on the moon and must decide how to reach their mother ship 200 miles away. Their only supplies not ruined by the crash are the 15 items listed below, and the task of the student is to rank them in order of usefulness in reaching the mother ship. Students can learn how effective whatever problem-solving methods they supply are by comparing their solutions with the "ideal" solution (see below) worked out by NASA experts.

Items	NASA Rank
box of matches	15
food concentrate	4
fifty feet of nylon rope	6
parachute silk	8
solar-powered portable heating unit	13
two .45-caliber pistols	11
one case of dehydrated Pet milk	12
two 100-pound tanks of oxygen	1
stellar map (of the moon's constellation)	3
self-inflating life raft	9
magnetic compass	14
five gallons of water	2
signal flares	10
first-aid kit containing injection needles	7
solar-powered FM receiver-transmitter	5

Oxygen (1) is the most pressing survival need, and the least useful item is the box of matches (15). Error points are the absolute difference between student ranks and NASA's. (Scoring: 0-25 is excellent; 26-32 is good; 33-45 is average; 46-55 is fair; 56-70 is poor; and 71-112 is very poor.) Twenty-five percent of experimental groups did better than their best members, and group improvement over individual scores rose to 75 percent when groups received instructions in how to reach a consensus through creative conflict resolution. However, assumptions should not be made about percentages of improvement on *other* tasks on the basis of these figures.

RESOURCES

Behavioral and Social Science Teacher is a new magazine which explores precollegiate teaching of all the behavioral sciences. It is strongly recommended for teachers. Annual subscriptions are $5. Write to Behavioral Publications, 725th Avenue, New York, NY 10011. Ask also about *Developments in High School Psychology*, Harwood Fisher, ed.

Generation Gap is a game of interaction which has some players role-play parents and others portray their children. Developed to help increase communication skills and understanding, it teaches ways to turn conflict into gentler, more effective approaches. Five basic issues are presented with

alternatives to consider. One alternative might give a score to the "parent", another to the "teenager." Players: 4-6. Playing time: one hour. The game is so constructed that play may be carried over a number of class periods. Available from Educational Manpower, Inc., P.O. Box 4274-F, Madison, WI 53711.

Several sources of additional information are available through professional organizations. The American Psychological Association can be contacted for news and new trends and materials. Ask to be placed on their free mailing list for *Periodically*, a monthly newsletter. Write to 1200 17th Street N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036.

A new special interest group of the National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS) has been formed for psychology teachers. For further information write NCSS, 1515 Wilson Blvd., Arlington, VA 22209.

World Civilization

Introduction

Rationale. The rationale for the study of world civilizations in high school conforms to the following seventh grade statement. Indiana recommends teaching about other world cultures teaching of the non-western world in the social studies curriculum. Events have made it abundantly clear that an informed citizenry must know more than traditional European history and geography. Events throughout the world — that part of the world which in the past has scarcely impinged on our awareness — suggest that our very survival depends upon the ability to handle the complexities of population growth, scarce resource allocation, organized aggression and land redistribution. The difference is quantitative: older students can explore the curriculum in greater depth, in more detail and at a higher level of abstraction.

Overview

The teaching of high school World Civilization Studies is currently in a period of transition. What are the emerging differences in approach?

Interdisciplinary. Traditionally a course called World History focused almost exclusively on Western history and was organized around the disciplines of history, with inclusion of elements of geography. The emerging trend has been to organize the course along interdisciplinary or multidisciplinary lines, drawing from economics, political science, sociology, geography and anthropology. Another related trend is to organize the course along humanistic lines, with a heavy focus on the arts, music and literature, both conventional and folklore. This approach is flexible, can deal with matters of interest to the students and makes much better use of recent findings from the disciplines of science and the social sciences. The weakness is that it requires a teacher with up-to-date sophisticated preparation, demands much outside work and often puts a strain on a library or media center.

Focused Multi-Media. Parallel to the interdisciplinary trend is another emerging approach. In place of the organization of a large number of events, persons, trends, phenomena, etc., into an indigestible whole, the trend is to focus World Civilization Studies on a unified theme, on an area or on a problem. This approach has been rendered considerably more interesting through the use of selected audiovisual media. Kits organized around a theme now include a good many resources, such as teacher manuals, students texts, paperback books of readings, artifacts, maps, records, filmstrips, slides and the like. Often there will be included primary source documents, such as diaries, letters, ethnographic accounts and literature. The strengths, as described above, are that it is more current, is more flexible, can adapt well to the needs of students, and lends itself to indepth exploration. The weaknesses, also as above, are that it requires a more sophisticated teacher who is prepared to give time to extensive preparation, and who possesses much more imagination. It is also true that both the focused multi-media and the interdisciplinary approach do not necessarily lend themselves to authentic problem-solving teaching.

Objectives

The encouraging appearance of books of readings, multi-media kits and a wide number of inexpensive paperbacks now make it possible for a school system, a given department or a teacher to use a variety of approaches and materials.

Consensus seems to be emerging with regard to at least two criteria for a World Civilization Studies Course.

1. There should be provision for diversity in both time and space. There should be opportunity for extended examination of at least one early civilization — in addition to the customary treatment of the origins of western civilization.
2. The emphasis should be global. Modern history

— from the 1500s to the present — especially as it functions as background knowledge for an understanding of the present is important.

Four important themes include:

1. *Cultural Change.* The nature of preindustrial societies and the transition from an agricultural to an industrialized society.
2. *The Growth of Science and Technology.* The importance of science and the growth of technology, especially as it relates to changes in the basic nature of human relationships.
3. *Tradition and Revolution.* The balance between the weight of tradition and the important revolutions which have shaped the modern world.
4. *Interdependence.* The increasing interdependence of virtually all peoples and all countries.

Knowledge
Students will:

1. Name and describe the changes in the family and the community as a consequence of the Industrial Revolution.
2. Using a select current affairs item, a) trace the historical development of that event, and b) extrapolate from that event by predicting possible future consequences.
3. Describe the difference between a written and a spoken language such as Chinese and relate diversity in that language to the historical unification of the related area.

Activities
Students can deal with some of the important qualitative distinctions between medieval and modern life. However, it is important that they avoid simplistic, good-bad, "dark ages" thinking.

1. Name and identify the differences between a European town in the year 1200 with a large city — London, Tokyo, Moscow, New York — in the mid-20th century.
2. In a comparison and contrast of the medieval and modern world, ask students to deal with the changes that took place in the family and the community as a result of industrialization. For instance, what changes which we would tend to consider desirable were gained as a result of the Industrial Revolution? Students may mention security, a higher standard of living, convenience, better health, access to communication and travel or more available education. They may also list — or they may need prompting to list — such liabilities as: the loss of an organic community with close, warm primary relations; the development of lethal weapons of destruction; the loss of the extended family; and the loss of simple standards of values.

Select one item in the local newspaper or on a morning or evening TV news program. Develop this item, through research, group analysis and classroom discussion to deal with the historical background of the event, change over time, people's awareness of the event, the possible dramatic qualities of that event, and finally the possible future impact of that event.

Students can deal with the abstraction "nationalism" by first defining the term, developing criteria and applying the criteria to nations at different stages of development. In addition, they can deal with the value dimensions of nationalism by discussing such propositions as:

1. Nationalism, and the destructive energy it releases, is the major danger to world peace today.
2. Some world control techniques will need to be found to control the aggressive forces released by nationalism.
3. American nationalism is no better or worse than any other kind of nationalism.
4. Nationalism is a positive benefit to a people because it unifies them, makes diverse peoples coherent and checks tribal conflict.

A Chinese dwelling in one province speaks a language that is pronounced very differently from a Chinese living a thousand miles away.

1. Could this have impeded unification of China through the ages?
2. Imagine that the analogous situation existed in the United States since the founding of the colonies in the 17th century. What might have been the consequences of such linguistic diversity?
3. Nevertheless, the written Chinese language — called ideographs — is not only the same throughout China, it has scarcely changed in 2,000 years. How can one explain this apparent paradox?

Values
Students will:

1. Compare, contrast and evaluate different types of social organizations.
2. Analyze and evaluate the components of a model of revolutions, assessing the extent to which the goals of a given revolution have been realized.
3. Identify and describe themes common to selected science fiction writers, assessing the meaning and legitimacy of the implied values.

Activities

Different societies have different kinds of stratification. Students may research, compare and contrast and analyze the following kinds of social organization:

1. A technocracy
2. A meritocracy
3. An open class system
4. A closed class system
5. A caste system
6. A two layer class structure as in Medieval Europe

Students can construct a model of revolutions. Thus, with the basic question, "What do the French, the Russian and the American Revolutions have in common?" students can list and analyze such similarities as:

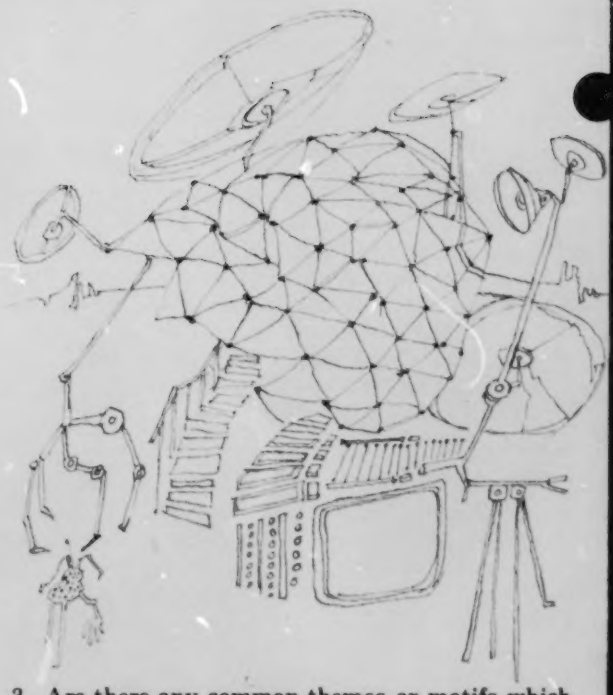
1. The presence of a few, dedicated, disciplined leaders.
2. Leadership coming neither from the extreme top nor the extreme bottom, rather the middle class.
3. A change in power distribution.
4. An ideology which was used to legitimate, justify and validate the revolution.
5. The exporting of both that ideology and revolutionary spirit.
6. The development of newer forms of technology.

There are, of course, other factors that the three revolutions share in common. Students should develop their own list and finish with the following open-ended question:

> In your judgment, how successful was the French Revolution. The American Revolution? The Russian Revolution? Are all these revolutions complete?

Locate a copy of the National Council for the Social Studies journal, *Social Education*, No. 37 (February, 1973). It contains a good many articles and activities which attempt to develop the theme: Teaching About World History Through Science Fiction. Possible spin-offs from this number concern some of the themes of science fiction, as:

1. What is the literary genre called "science fiction?"
2. Of what possible benefit is it to anyone for a writer to tell stories about an imagined future?



3. Are there any common themes or motifs which tend to run through science fiction short stories?
4. Can one characterize science fiction writers as gloomy, optimistic or hopeful about the future? Which writers?
5. With respect to the Asimov story, "It's Such a Beautiful Day," in the *Social Education* journal previously cited: The author appears to be warning us about the tendency of technology to estrange individuals from nature. What is he talking about? Is this something we should worry about? Why? Is there any evidence that individuals today are estranged or removed from nature? What evidence?

Social Participation
Students will:

1. Research, frame and defend or criticize selected propositions concerning the energy crisis in a public debate.
2. Organize, carry out and publish the results of an opinion survey in the local community on selected topics relating to the energy crisis.

Activities

Ask students to frame a number of questions concerning the energy crisis which they are to use as a basis for conducting a local opinion survey on the energy crisis. Possible suggestions for propositions as a basis for this survey might include:

1. Do you accept the basic assumption that resources are simply not adequate for the number of people on this planet?
2. Which of the following, or none of them, would you accept as most accurate:

a. The recent oil crisis was the result of agreement by oil companies to restrict the distribution of oil, gasoline and fuel.
b. The recent oil crisis is the result of oil companies running out of sufficient oil reserves.
c. By and large, over-enthusiastic conservationists and ecologists brought on the energy crisis by their unreasonable demands to protect the environment.

3. Would you accept the basic belief that unless oil companies are allowed to realize a very large profit, they will have neither the motivation nor the means to explore for more oil?
4. Americans are simply using too large a share of the goods and resources of the world. We must learn to cut down, conserve and change our way of living.
5. A very drastic change in government is needed if the various nations are not to run out of resources.
6. Industrialized countries, and the United States in particular, misuse natural resources by squandering them on luxuries and nonessential items.
7. Industries motivated by the profit incentive are probably inventive enough to devise new techniques and create new sources of energy.

Organize the class for a debate, panel presentation or the like before a local community group, e.g., the League of Women Voters. The topic should revolve around the issue of energy, potential energy scarcity, potential conflict over sources of energy.

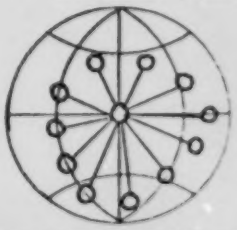
Similar to the above, the class could prepare a debate on the following:

> RESOLVED: Any future trade with the Soviet Union will be on the basis of reciprocity, such that for every bushel of wheat the United States sends the Soviet Union, the United States will receive a similar value in oil or scarce metal.

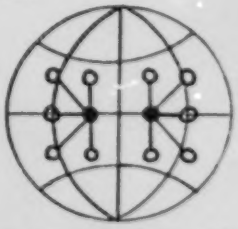
The following can function as a summary activity. It is a very high order activity which involves the domains of Knowledge, Value and Social Participation. Using the World Order Models depicted below, students can research and discuss the following questions. Please note that the questions are sequential, from the lowest to the highest abstraction level.

World Order Models Discussion:

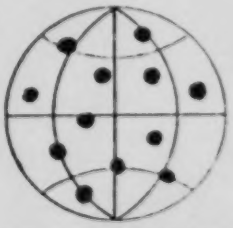
1. What are the advantages and disadvantages of each system?
2. Which system(s) seems most likely to provide for a permanent peace? to encourage economic growth? to distribute wealth fairly?
3. Under which system would you prefer to live? Why?
4. In the year 2050, which system is most likely to exist? Why?
5. If you would prefer to live under a system which does not yet exist, how do you think the world should go about establishing such a system?
6. If all of these systems actually existed, how would each one deal with the following problems?
   a. A crop failure in Southeast Asia has resulted in widespread starvation. Thousands of people have already died. The people of Southeast Asia have appealed to the world for help. What can be done and under what circumstances?
   b. A civil war has been raging in Brazil for the past five years. Now the rebels announce that they have captured documents indicating that the government has developed nuclear weapons and plans to use them against rebel-held areas. What can be done?
   c. Spain and Morocco have announced plans to close the Mediterranean Sea to ships of all nations which do not sign a mutual defense pact pledging to attack any nation which attacks either Spain or Morocco. Italy refuses to sign such a pact, but is determined to continue to sail into and out of the Mediterranean. What can be done?



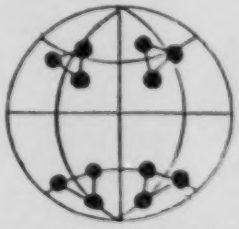
One Country Rule: One country governs the rest of the world, controlling all resources, industry, and trade. The superpower determines the national interest of all other nations and the interest of the world – all are defined in terms of the superpower's interests.



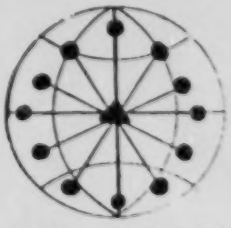
Bipolar: Two superpowers have divided the world. Each controls a large group of countries, and controls the resources, industry, and trade within its bloc. Relations between the two blocs are determined by the superpowers to serve their own interests.



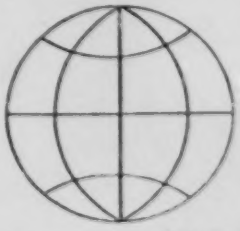
Polycentrism: Each country has its own government, controls its own resources, industry, and trade. There are no international organizations or alliances — every country operates in its own interests.



Regionalism: Countries located in the same part of the world have formed regional governments which control resources, industry, and trade within each region. Relations between regions are governed by regional interests.



World Law: All nations of the world have established a world authority which makes laws against international violence and has agencies to enforce these laws, keep the peace, and resolve conflicts. Individual nations control their own resources, industry, internal security, and trade. The world authority acts only to prevent the use of violence in relations between nations.



_____ Draw your own model of an international system. Specify how international relations, trade, and security are handled in your model. Why is your model better than any of the other models?

Diagrams and exercises adapted from "World Order" in *World History Through Inquiry*, by Jack Zevin and Byron G. Massialas. Skokie, IL: Rand McNally, 1969) pages 53-54. Used with permission of Rand McNally.

RESOURCES

Several sources of materials can be very helpful when trying to meet students' needs in studying world civilizations.

Africa: Continent in Change is a set of five sound filmstrips which portray today's continent of 400 million people caught up in the ferment of developing nations. Historical background is provided and the more than 500 ethnic groups are represented through a blend of customs, culture and art. The film is among many excellent materials including filmstrips and books available through the National Geographic Educational Services. Write to the National Geographic Society, Department 76, P.O. Box 1640, Washington, D.C. 20013.

Focusing on Global Poverty and Development: A Resource Book for Educators provides usable, comprehensive materials to help secondary school teachers and public educators integrate studies of global development and interdependence into existing programs of study. This book and other materials can be obtained from the Overseas Development Council, 1717 Massachusetts Ave. N.W., Suite 501, Washington, D.C. 20036.

King Tutankhamen Exhibit. This awesome exhibit, now touring the United States, has stimulated interest in the origins of world civilizations. The Social Studies School Service Catalog lists several world history paperbacks, including one on King Tut. Order from 10,000 Culver Blvd., Department E, P.O. Box 802, Culver City, CA 90230.

Packet M includes a general model for international/intercultural education, an analysis of available materials for global education, and a view of how the concept of culture can be fostered in children. The packet is among the varied resources available from the Social Science Education Consortium (SSEC). It costs $9.25 and can be ordered by writing to SSEC, 855 Broadway, Boulder, CO 80302.

The Mid-America Program for Global Perspectives in Education located at Indiana University, 573 N. Park Ave., Bloomington, IN 47401 can provide an excellent resource bibliography for global studies. It includes the names and addresses of consulate headquarters where many informational materials can be obtained free concerning specific countries.

Sociology

Introduction

Sociology is the scientific study of group behavior. Sociologists single out for examination those factors, common to groups, that exert an influence on the formation of attitudes, beliefs, expectations, aspirations, hopes and dislikes. As such, sociologists share some of their concerns with psychologists, anthropologists and other social scientists.

Although sociology has its origins in the 19th century and has been taught in universities for most of this century, it has not ordinarily been a standard offering in American secondary schools. However, since the 1960s when the American Sociological Association commissioned a sub-organization to create modern secondary curriculum, sociology has steadily increased in popularity. By the mid-1970s there is a sufficient number of both conventional and experimental curriculum materials for virtually any population of students.

The importance of sociology lies both in its method and its concerns. Through the use of structured interviews, surveys and questionnaires and the employment of statistical and mathematical analysis of data, sociologists have been able to shed light on a variety of concerns. These concerns touch very directly on a wide range of social problems — from crime to changes in sexual norms, from racial relations to political preference. Thus, sociological analysis and sociological data are relevant to teachers who wish to employ a problem-centered curriculum.

Because sociologists deal with many of the social problems which vex most Americans and because sociologists often discover data which conflicts with commonly held perceptions, by its very nature sociology is controversial. However, most contemporary sociological curriculum materials usually succeed in being stimulating and provocative without being unduly biased or one-sided. Finally, also because sociologists treat an extraordinary range of contemporary problems, it is possible to utilize a good many elements of sociological curriculum materials in American and world history, in civics, geography and social problems — indeed, in all of the social studies curriculum.

Group Behavior, Roles and Personality

Introduction

This is a brief unit designed for a sociology class but also of potential use in any other social studies class in which the focus is on the relationship between the individuals, groups and influences on behavior. The instructor should keep in mind that adolescents tend to regard their own behavior as singular, unique and autonomous and tend to be either unaware of or unwilling to believe in the existence of external forces that shape or influence individual humans.

Objectives

Students will:

1. Define, use and apply the terms in this unit — "groups," "group behavior," "role," and "personality."
2. Provide instances and examples of similar and differing behaviors characteristic of groups as different as adolescent cliques, armies, nations, special interest groups (e.g., equestrial organizations, Saturday night poker clubs, motorcycle clubs, etc.).
3. Describe, in general terms, the process by which group norms are learned, i.e., the process of "socialization," by the young in any society.
4. Cite examples of *conflicting* roles which a) students are aware of, b) come from their own experiences.
5. Gather anecdotal data from their own school environment which illustrate role, role formation, role conflict and role conflict resolution.
6. Extrapolate from their own school circumstances to the larger society.

Activities

Ask students to list all the ways in which their social studies class differs from what they would imagine characterizes the behavior of a terrorist organization. (A terrorist organization is useful for this purpose because, even though most would regard terrorists with loathing, in fact terrorist organizations share the same characteristics as all groups.) There will probably be a good many varied answers, but attempt to record all contributions under the two categories, "social studies classes" and "terrorist organization."

Consult the bibliographical entries in this guide. If students do not mention, for instance, such characteristics as "the presence of two or more persons," "a purpose," "norms, expectations," i.e., determinants of what constitutes "good" or "acceptable" behavior, then add these to the lists.

Now, based on what they have suggested, ask students to design an "ideal" member of a terrorist organization. They are to decide how to bring about a "willing," "conforming," "conscientious" member of an international terrorist organization. Students can be expected to mention some of the same points already listed on the board, as purpose, norms, etc. Use some form of role-playing

to enable them both to see and feel the process of group formation, establishment of goals, socialization procedures, internalization of norms, etc. Ask a process recorder to write down agreements, consensus, important points, etc. This same verbal record can be reproduced via a mimeograph machine or a Xerox copier and passed out later.

Now ask students to form groups of their own for the purpose of securing data. Each group should select some specifically recognized social group — one not already mentioned or discussed in class — and attempt to describe the behavior, using those same group characteristics already listed at the introduction of this unit. Students can opt for any group of their choice but encourage them to select groups with which at least most of them have some experience or knowledge. What is wanted is diversity: groups as contrasting as woman's organizations (Eastern Star, Altrusa, Job's Daughters, and Hadassah), adolescent gangs, military (Marines, Navy, Air Force, Army, or some special division of each), athletic teams (school, college or professional).

Each group should report in sufficient detail so as to reinforce what has already been said. Questions for discussion include:

1. How do groups "keep people in line," i.e., enforce "proper" behavior in group members?
2. In what sense does any individual participate in many groups?
3. In what sense (how and why) does membership in a particular group influence what is known as "personality?"
4. Do individuals always know (be able to identify, are aware of) the influences which have shaped their personality?

At this point, ask students to do research on selected subtopics, perhaps of their own devising. (See the annotated bibliography in this guide). It might be possible for research groups to record, organize and present their information as a compilation of different chapters in a text which may then be duplicated and passed out to individual class members. It would be useful — and doubtless entertaining — for students to role play behavior of groups with which they have had the least contact. Thus, several athletes might go through the steps involved in preparing for and holding a tea party for a visiting dignitary to a women's club; or a half dozen girls might plan to knock over the local bank. Upon completion of this role playing exercise ask students to comment upon such topics and questions as:

1. Did you personally feel any strain in play-acting roles that are unfamiliar? Why? Under what circumstances would you not feel uncomfortable? Even though such behavior is both unfamiliar and/or uncongential to you personally, do you agree that it does in fact represent *human* behavior?
2. Would it be wise for, e.g., Marine Corp enlistees in boot camp, to be aware of the processes employed to convert them into full-fledged Marines? Why or why not?
3. Assume that you were the principal of your school and wished to change the behavior of some allegedly anti-social group. Before you begin, what would you need to know? (Point out that those principals who seem to be in touch and empathetic with young people are often judged to be most effective.)
4. Now assume that you were asked to mediate conflict between two groups that were in an active conflict situation (e.g., Israelis and Arabs; school boards and striking teachers; hospital board of trustees and dissatisfied physicians, nurses, aides, cleaning women, etc.) Now, what would you need to know?

At the conclusion of this unit, ask students to attempt to conceptualize their learnings with such questions as:

1. What is the most important thing you have learned from this unit?
2. What is the most important thing you learned about *yourself*?
3. Are there any changes you can, might or should make in the way you live? If so, what are they?
4. What do you now intend to be more aware of in the future?

Poverty

Introduction

Very few, if any, topics are more cpable of generating stronger emotion than poverty. Probably the reason is that the entire subject is beset with conflicting beliefs, misinformation, prejudice, preconceived notions and illogic. At the root of the problem is the tendency of Americans to polarize their thinking: Americans tend to believe that either 1) poverty is a direct result of "character flaw," i.e., individuals are poor because they are "naturally" shiftless and lazy, or, 2) poverty is the direct result of inequitable, unfair and unjust social institutions. Neither belief can be demonstrated fully and finally. Both beliefs tend to yield diametrically opposed solutions. Poverty can be studies in any and all social studies classes, World Civilization, history, civics, geography, social problems, economics and psychology.

Objectives

Students will:

1. Define, summarize and explain at least three differing approaches to poverty, e.g., different statistical definitions, the "culture of poverty" theory.
2. List and explain a variety of related and essential terms, such as "relative poverty," "rising expectations," "decent and reasonable existence."
3. Cite the source of and methods by which sta-

tistical information on poverty are ordinarily gathered.
4. Contrast and criticize such traditional explanations as "liberal" vs. "conservative," "environmental" vs. "hereditarian."
5. Devise, plan and execute a data-gathering survey and interpret the results.
6. Characterize and evaluate different welfare reform proposals.
7. Describe, analyze and evaluate proposals coming from widely different groups, organizations and institutions, e.g., editorials from conservative daily newspapers, proposals from the Urban League, or from political candidates.

Activities

It might be desirable to begin with a questionnaire, such as the one found on page 67 of *Research Experiences in Sociology* (see "Resources" in this section).

Questions might include:

1. Do you feel that poverty is a serious social problem in America? Yes _____ No _____
2. Is poverty in any sense justifiable in this country in the year 1978? Justifiable _____ Not justifiable _____
3. Do you feel that poverty is basically caused by individuals (such as by persons who are unwilling or unable to work) or by society (for instance, the way society is structured)? Individuals _____ Society _____
4. What percent of the American population would you suspect is poor? 5 _____ 10 _____ 15 _____ 20 _____ 25 _____ 30 _____ 35 _____
5. Do you personally believe that you have some responsibility toward the poor? If yes, what kind? If no, why not?
6. Can poverty be eliminated in this country?

Emphasize that answers to these questions are not known with precision and that what is wanted is the student's considered judgment. Discuss answers in class, attempting to "put space between" different positions, i.e., attempt to provide as sharp a contrast as possible between different attitudes, points of view, etc.

Possible questions include:

1. Who exactly are the poor?
2. How is "poverty" determined?
3. What governmental institutions are responsible for:
   - — deciding the extent of poverty?
   - — gathering statistics on the poor?
4. How did the poor get that way? (Alternative questions include: What causes poverty? Why are some people poor and some not?)
5. If by some chance you were put in charge of a governmental commission to help alleviate poverty in this country, what, at this stage of your understanding, would you wish to recommend? Why?

There are a great many sources of data on this subject, including works listed in "Resources" at the end of this section. Students may be asked to bring in data from such materials as:

- — newspaper editorials, feature stories and news stories.
- — pictures.
- — anecdotal reports.
- — expressions of opinion from parents, friends, etc.
- — indepth coverage by journals such as *Time, Newsweek, U.S. News and World Report.*

At this stage of inquiry, attitudes are being clarified. It is essential, however, to bring to bear the sociologist's perspective. Using library references, out-of-class readings, works stored in your own classroom or in a social studies resource center and materials located in your city or county materials depository, relevant topics for discussion, analysis and research include:

1. Poverty can be determined by using statistics on income and spending patterns. What are the different statistical ways of deciding who is poor? (i.e., contrast such statistical approaches as: x amount of money for a family of four or five; being required to spend x percentage of one's salary on food, clothing and shelter.)
2. Poverty can be defined simply in terms of not having "enough," in terms of living in "want" or in terms of living the kind of life that is not considered "decent and reasonable." If we use these terms, what problems immediately arise? (Students will probably identify that such terms are relative and depend upon context, perception, etc. At this stage, it might be possible to shift the inquiry slightly to comparisons of the urban or rural poor in this country, the *guajiro* in South America, the *fellahin* in Egypt or the peasant in China and the displaced tribal member in a new African republic.)
3. Is it possible to distinguish between those who are poor because of:
   a. old age
   b. sickness
   c. the effects of social discrimination
   d. lack of education, training and opportunity
   e. other (if this category, precisely what "other," i.e., students may articulate that some are poor for no discernible reason than they lack motivation, concern or "drive."

It might be possible, at this stage of inquiry, for the class to design attitudinal surveys. Attitudes and beliefs about poverty which have cropped up in class or which have been derived from newspaper editorials, parental expressions, etc., may be refined and made into a questionnaire to be given by a group or by each class member. Possible

leading questions or topics might include:

1. What percentage of the population is poor?
2. Is race in any sense related to poverty?
3. Is society doing enough to eliminate poverty? And if not, why not?

Each of these questions can be elaborated, with sub-questions. Data gathered by students may be compared with more or less hard data which would reveal that:

- Most governmental sources have concluded that from 20 to 25 percent of the population can be considered poor.
- Despite popular belief to the contrary, most of the poor are white.
- The vast majority of those considered poor do not fit the "able bodied but lazy" stereotype but are rather minors, the aged, the chronically sick or the crippled and those who have been abandoned.

Such hard statistical information tends to conflict sharply with popularly believed and widely held notions about the poor, the relationship between poverty and race and the nature of welfare claimants.

Sources of reliable information on the poor can come from many sources. It would be possible to train students to conduct personal interviews and to ask sharp and pointed questions of, for instance:

- a local economics professor (university and college economists tend to have their own approach to and set of assumptions about poverty that are somewhat different than those of sociologists).
- social service employees and civil servants responsible for dealing directly with the poor, e.g., the Aid to Needy (or Dependent) Children case worker.
- political party candidates; those who are visible as spokesmen for either the Democratic or Republican party.
- articulate spokesmen for radical groups (either on or off the college campus).
- spokesmen for the local Taxpayer's Association.

The eventual payoff for gathering data from these sources and for discussing and analyzing information and ideas in the classroom of course relates to the formulation of public policy. Upon completing this unit, students should be able to increase their stock of dependable generalizations and to contemplate the task of deciding national policy relative to the poor and to poverty. By such means as a panel discussion or a debate, students may demonstrate increased sophistication by dealing with such topics and issues as:

1. It has been argued that the poor are useful (M.P. Hunt; see "Resources" in this section) for providing a relatively available source of low paid labor for low status or menial jobs. What would happen if, in fact, all of the poor disappeared? Who would collect garbage? Would you or any member of your family want this job?
2. It has been claimed that the poor are psychologically necessary, i.e., are needed by the middle class to confirm them in their own virtue. (That is, the middle class needs the poor, who are alleged to be constitutionally or genetically lazy, shiftless, etc., in order to convince the middle class that they are hard-working, worthy, etc.) What is your response to this admittedly "outrageous hypothesis?"
3. Are there countries which have either no poor or very little poverty? Which countries?
4. Are there countries which have a good many more poor than we do? Which countries? (Please recall and bring into play the notion of "relative deprivation" and "rising levels of expectation").
5. What is the history of welfare reform in this society? Why did the famed Nixon-Moynahan proposal to completely redesign national welfare programs fail? Why have we seemingly been unable to alter or change our welfare apparatus — even though there is little that is more controversial and more unpopular than the various state welfare programs?
6. Itemize each of the poverty-producing factors that has been explored so far in this unit. Now design what you take to be a feasible and practical way of dealing with each of these factors.

Epilogue

In all likelihood, student interest and concern will extend to issues related to poverty. It is very possible that students will wish to explore such topics as:

- migration patterns
- the nature of industrialization
- the city as a source of poverty-related problems
- race
- the Protestant ethic
- unemployment insurance, income maintenance and welfare

Students should be encouraged to do so, for the issue is complex and necessarily requires consideration of many related topics.

How Am I Supposed to Act? Social Conformity

Introduction

The term "conform" and "social conformity" are commonly supposed to describe thoughtless compliance. Critics of this society lament our emphasis on social conformity and even adolescents decry "going along with the crowd," regardless of one's convictions. However, a number of decades of research into social conformity reveals a good many complexities and raises such questions as, "Exactly what is conformance?", "Who conforms?", "Who are the non-conformists?", "Is our country more 'conforming' than others?", "What are the penalities for not conforming?" This unit can be

studied in a sociology or psychology class but might fit in nicely with, for instance, a discussion of "McCarthyism" in American history.

Objectives
Students will:

1. Define and use correctly the basic terms, "conformity," "norms," "unconscious," "adjustment," "sanctions," "expectations," "socialization" and "group."
2. Name and describe a variety of different norms, all of which are clearly understood and largely obeyed.
3. Name and describe a variety of different norms, all of which are a) unclear, b) changing, c) confused, or d) obsolescent.
4. Define and illustrate "socialization" or "enculturation" and locate the phenomenon in the "growing-up" process.
5. Name and illustrate sanctions employed by various social organizations to guarantee social conformity.
6. Analyze and evaluate instances of group conflict as examples of "non-conformity."
7. Compare two groups, one widely regarded as "non-conformist," (e.g., an outlaw motorcycle organization, such as Hell's Angels) with a group regarded as conventional, respectable or proper.
8. Name and identify the norms of a "non-conformist" organization in such a way that they are as clear and understandable as those of a conventional organization.
9. Design and carry out an observation process designed to yield data concerning conformity.

Activities

Either describe or pass out a handout describing in some detail the famous Asch experiment with conformity. (See "Resources" in this section, DeFleur, et. al., p. 152.) In this experiment, "dupes" were coerced into misjudging the length of three lines. Three lines, of clearly different sizes, are placed some feet away from the subjects. By themselves, subjects can easily distinguish among the three different sized lines. With nine confederates maintaining that the lines are the same, there is a powerful tendency for the dupe to conform to their supposed better judgment. The dupe, therefore, publicly agrees that the three different lines are the same size.

This experiment created a marked reaction in the 1950s when it was reported; it has been reprinted in books, readings and cited frequently during the last 25 years. The Asch experiment, as one authority says, "illustrated the powerful influence of group norms on individual behavior." (DeFleur, p. 152.) Students can continue the problem-sensing stage of this unit by discussing among themselves the following:

1. Exactly what did the experimenter discover about the nature of perception?
2. Are there any principles or generalizations which might apply outside the experimental laboratory? If so, what are they?
3. Can one find phenomena in one's daily life which are similar to this experiment? (Alternative question: Is it possible to find the same pressures toward conformity in your family, church, school, organizations, friendship circles, etc.?)

Divide the class into three, four or five groups of the same size. Ask each group to pretend that it consists of members of a particular well known social group. If possible, ask at least one group to assume the characteristics of an outlaw motorcycle gang. Now ask each group to name and list (with the help of a group-appointed secretary) three different classes of behavior. One should consist of regulations that absolutely must be obeyed. The second set consists of behavior that is prohibited. The third consists of behavior which is neither prohibited nor demanded but rather optional. Ask the group to come together and then request examples of behavior illustrating the three different categories. Now have the groups convene once more and ask them to list the kinds of sanctions typically leveled against those who violate different prohibitions. The sanctions should range from mild (e.g., a verbal reproof or warning) to severe (e.g., expulsion, corporal punishment, capital punishment). Arrange the sanctions on the board on a continuum from "most severe" to "least severe." Now ask the groups to form once more, listing the kinds of behavior for which degrees of reward are conferred. That is, each group should list both the behavior and the extent to which the behavior is rewarded. For instance, a karate club will reward one who wins. An orchestra will reward a soloist who performs successfully. Be certain that the groups also mention the kinds of rewards given to those who behave in varying degrees of excellence. For instance, rewards may range from a brief smile, a plaque, a good report, an official commendation, a formal thank you letter, to an enthusiastic pat on the back.

Write the examples of the desirable behavior and the appropriate reward on the chalkboard. What you should now have are two continua: one with proscribed, forbidden behavior and suitable punishments and the other with approved behavior and suitable rewards. Questions for discussion include:

1. Describe in summary form the process we have been listing on the board. (Some such statements as, "We have been describing the process by which groups reward good behavior and punish bad," or, "We have been describing the process by which groups make people shape up, do the right thing, stick to the straight and narrow, etc.," will suffice.)
2. Does the process we have been talking about apply to some groups or all groups?
3. Does this process also apply to larger groups, e.g., the school, the community, or the society at large?
4. We sometimes employ the term "badly adjusted." To whom is this term usually applied? When? Under what circumstances?

At this point, students can do some individualized or group research, seeking more expert information. Useful information will be found under a variety of subheadings, e.g., "the internalization of norms," "groups," "group controls," "sanctions," "conformity," "social control," "methods of social control," "social deviancy." Information on these subjects can be pooled, organized and presented in coherent fashion.

When students are comfortable with the new terms and concepts, ask them to design some data-gathering device that will allow them to a) observe behavior in formal circumstances, b) record such different categories as "approved," "demanded," and "prohibited," and c) analyze and evaluate the data.

Arrange opportunities for class members to make their observations. Ask them to keep careful records. After making and recording observations — of churches, pep rallies, club meetings, classrooms, band rehearsals, formal banquets, athletic practice sessions — the students should attempt to analyze their data and to derive generalizations. Useful questions include:

1. What are the types of behaviors which are demanded?
2. What are the types of behaviors which are forbidden or prohibited?
3. Exactly how do groups of all sizes go about making individuals behave appropriately?
4. Do individuals always know precisely when they are being controlled by groups?
5. What would happen if a large number of individuals in a group were to suddenly and inexplicably refuse to conform to group expectations?
6. Is it possible for groups — who have their own set of "deviant" behaviors — to function in such a way as to violate social standards? (That is, can students cite and describe groups such as the Mafia, a mob or a syndicate, which operate according to very strict rules but which are regarded by others as "deviant" or "anti-social?")
7. Sociologists maintain that conformity is usually possible only when a) there is a standard, b) the standard is well known and clear, and c) most generally choose to obey the standard. Can you suggest norms, standards or guides to behavior which do not meet these requirements? Which ones?
8. Is it possible to conform to a standard when it is becoming obsolescent (i.e., is in the process of passing out of existence but is not yet obsolete)? What standards can you mention which are obsolescent?
9. Should this society require political conformity? Exactly what is political conformity? What standards regarding politics are quite clear? Which ones are not?

Epilogue

Note: American history teachers can introduce concepts related to the unit in a discussion of political conformity, the McCarthy era, civil rights, the Bill of Rights and the abstract concept of political freedom.

RESOURCES

Many games and simulations now on the market are appropriate for use in sociology classes to clarify particular concepts. A representative sampling follows:

Bafa Bafa is a simulation which deals with the meaning of culture and demonstrates how easy it is to develop counterproductive attitudes, misperceive events and communicate poorly when interacting with another culture or subculture. Takes one to one and a half hours to play. Directions on how to make your own kit, cost $3.50. Order from Simile II, P.O. Box 1023, La Jolla, CA 92037.

COPE a simulation of change and the future, focuses attention on our preferences for and adaptability to the future. After discussing an article, "Coping With Change," the classroom becomes a think-tank in which students live through five future time periods. Debriefing centers on the implications of students' findings about change and the future. Available from Interact, P.O. Box 262, Lakeside, CA 92040.

Life Career simulates certain features of the labor market, the "Education Market", and the "Marriage Market", as they now operate in the United States and as projections indicate they will function in the future. By playing, students gain an understanding of these institutions and some advance experience in planning for their own

future. Players: 2-20. Time: 1-6 hours. Write to Western Publishing Company, Inc., School and Library Department, 850 Third Ave., New York, NY 10022.

The Youth Culture Game provides a common group experience in the world of youth. Participants evaluate young life styles and analyze problems and protests of youth. Time: 1-2 hours. Classroom group and leader. Educational Manpower, Inc., P.O. Box 4272-F, Madison, WI 53711.

Tips for Teaching Precollege Sociology, by C. Frederick Risinger, briefly outlines what sociology is and the major approaches to it in the secondary school curriculum. The major portion of the document describes selected student learning activities. Teaching resources are described in the last chapter. Request a catalog and this paper from the Social Science Education Consortium, 855 Broadway, Boulder, CO 80302.

Evaluation

Drawing Inferences About Learning

Anyone who attempts to teach must be prepared to make decisions. Decision making requires information and judgment. The process of collecting information and rendering judgments is called evaluation. Consequently, evaluation as a component of decision making, is a necessary teaching skill.

Some of the most difficult evaluation decisions concern whether students have indeed learned what is expected of them. Learning, a long-lasting change in human capability, which is not attributable to physical development, occurs in the minds of students. Since it is an internal condition, learning can often only be detected indirectly on the basis of an inference. An inference is a conclusion reached by a mental process that involves using observed data to make judgments about unobserved events. Inferring what goes on in someone else's mind is a risky business; it is easy to go wrong. Yet teachers must act on the basis of inferred conclusions, and they can increase the accuracy of their decicions by using careful evaluation procedures.

Since learning involves a change in capability, it is reasonable to infer that learning has occurred if, after instruction, students successfully perform some act that they were previously unable to do. To collect information about learning, teachers construct situations (questions, problems, test items, or tasks) that require students to perform. By observing the performance, teachers have a basis for drawing inferences about learning. The quality of the inference depends in part upon the kind of behavior required by the situation and in part upon the precision and clarity of observation and thought.

Thus, two skills are required by teachers who wish to increase the accuracy of their decisions about learning. One is knowing what inferences can be validly drawn from different kinds of student performance and the other is the ability to construct appropriate performance situations to collect information for decision making. The use of both of these evaluation skills in the cognitive, values, and participation domains will be discussed and illustrated in this section of the guidelines.

The Cognitive Domain

The goal of instruction in the cognitive domain is to help students acquire knowledge. Knowledge is both an organized body of information and the means by which information is gathered. Information is organized by the use of concepts and generalizations. Thus, the major purpose of evaluation in the cognitive domain is to determine whether students have learned concepts and generalizations.

A. CONCEPTS

A concept is an abstract category which permits different things to be grouped together because they share some common characteristics. Some concepts frequently taught in social studies are *culture, role, democracy,* and *political influence.* Each of those words is a label that names an abstract category. Concepts include definitions that identify the features necessary for membership in the group. A concept definition is a rule for determining whether a particular item includes the necessary characteristics to belong in the category. Concepts are neither true or false; they are more or less useful in organizing the environment and have either greater or lesser significance in forming general statements about the world.

Given these characteristics, how can teachers determine whether students have learned a concept? Three approaches to this evaluation problem will be described, illustrated, and assessed in terms of the kind of inference each one permits.

Stating or Selecting the Correct Definition

One commonly used technique for collecting information for decisions about concept learning involves constructing a task that requires a student to work with the words in the definition. Any situation in which students *state* or *select* the correct definition fits into this method. The following items illustrate this approach:

Example 1. What is the definition of *ascribed status*?

Example 2. T or F — Achieved status is a social position secured through individual choice and competition.

Example 3. A social position that is secured

through individual choice and competition is called _____?

a. socio-economic status
b. status consciousness
c. ascribed status
d. achieved status

Example 4. Directions: Match each term in the left column with its correct definition in the right column.

Terms	Definitions
Status	a hierarchical ranking
Ascribed Status	a social position
Socio-Economic Status	an earned position
Achieved Status	a position conferred without choice

If students correctly answered any of these questions, can a teacher validly infer that they learned a concept? Unfortunately, the answer is no!

The validity of a test item is undermined if it permits students who have *not* mastered the concept to answer correctly. To respond correctly to these kinds of questions, a student need only recall an association between a concept label and a string of other words, the definition; and, even if the words are completely meaningless to a student, such recall is sufficient to yield a right answer.

In general, *tasks which require students to state or select the correct definition provide no basis for inferring that students have learned a concept.* The only inference that can be drawn from observing students successfully perform such tasks is that they have learned to associate certain *words*. Thus, it is important for teachers to distinguish between tasks that require students to recall a definition, which may or may not be meaningful to them, and tasks that require students to demonstrate understanding of a concept.

Distinguishing Between Positive and Negative Examples of a Concept

Another general approach to concept evaluation involves constructing situations that require students to differentiate between positive and negative examples of the concept. A positive example possesses all the necessary features to fit into the category; a negative example lacks one or more of the required characteristics. Following are examples of this method of measuring concept learning:

Example 1. Directions: The names of several social positions are listed below. Check any which reflect achieved status.

☐ girl	☐ mailman	☐ basketball player
☐ old man	☐ teenager	☐ cheerleader
☐ teacher	☐ U.S. President	☐ Queen of England

Example 2. Directions: Below are four hypotheses. They vary in the degree to which they are scientifically testable. Select the *one* hypothesis that is the most acceptable.

a. Political efficacy is a feeling of power or influence.
b. Males have a higher sense of political efficacy than females.
c. All people should have a high sense of political efficacy in a democracy.
d. Hippies have a lot of political efficacy.

If students respond correctly to these items, can a teacher validly infer that they have learned the concept of achieved status or of scientifically testable hypothesis? It depends on whether the examples used are *new* to the students and on the nature of the non-examples used.

If a test question uses examples that are the same as, or very similar, to those used during instruction, then rote recall is sufficient for a student to respond correctly. In that case, the question provides no information for deciding whether concept learning occurred. If, however, the examples used in a question are new to students, then they must understand the concept in order to answer correctly.

Yet, before an inference of concept learning can be drawn from successful performance on these kinds of questions, the nature of the non-examples used in the question must be considered. Important social studies concepts frequently have several defining characteristics. Each of the non-examples must possess some of the critical features of the concept; otherwise students who have learned some, but not all, of the defining characteristics can respond correctly even though they lack full understanding of the concept.

In general, questions which require students to distinguish between positive and negative examples provide a valid basis for inferring whether concept learning occurred if the following conditions are met: 1) The examples must be new, and, 2) The non-examples must possess some of the concept's critical features.

Using a Concept Analytically or Comparatively

Not all concepts can be evaluated by the previously described technique because it is difficult, perhaps impossible, to construct clear non-examples of many significant social studies concepts. For example, what are non-examples of culture or political behavior? The referents of some concepts are pervasive and trying to construct questions that require non-examples may confuse rather than clarify judgments about learning. Information about whether students have learned abstract, pervasive concepts can be acquired by

constructing situations that require students to use the concept either analytically or comparatively.

For example, consider how a concept such as political behavior can be measured. Political behavior is human behavior that involves the following features: value conflicts or issues, resources, influence, policy decisions, and rules. Students can be given a *new* case study and required to locate specific examples of each feature of the concept. Questions such as the following might be used:

1. What issues were involved in the case?
2. What resources did each individual or group possess?
3. How did each individual or group attempt to influence the outcome of the issue?
4. What rules or laws were involved?
5. What policy decision was reached?

In effect, these questions require students to break an instance of political behavior into identifiable elements, to analyze it. Students must understand each aspect of the concept in order to respond correctly. Students who incorrectly answer one or more of the questions demonstrate only partial learning.

Another useful evaluation method for measuring student learning of abstract, pervasive concepts is to construct a situation which requires students to use a concept comparatively. Concepts allow one to group different things together because they share common features. Nevertheless, differences can still be recognized among the things within a conceptual category. Hence, concepts facilitate both analytical thought and comparative analysis.

Concept learning can be evaluated by giving students several new case studies that illustrate the references of the concept in different settings. Students are then required a) to identify concrete examples in the studies of the critical features of the concept and b) to contrast each feature among the cases. This method can be easily structured in a short answer format.

Guidelines for Evaluating Concept Learning

Following are some general guidelines for evaluating concept learning:

1. Questions or tasks that require students to state or select the correct definition of a concept provide *no* basis for deciding whether students have learned the concept.
2. Questions or tasks that require students to distinguish between positive or negative examples of a concept provide a valid basis to decide whether students have learned the concept if:
   a. The examples and non-examples are new to the student, and,
   b. The non-examples contain some of the defining features of the concept.
3. Questions or tasks that require students to use concepts either analytically or comparatively provide a valid basis to decide whether students have learned the concept if:
   a. The examples are new, and,
   b. The examples contain some irrelevant information.

B. GENERALIZATIONS

Generalizations are sentences that state a relationship between two or more concepts. The following statement illustrates a generalization from political science: People high in *socio-economic status* tend to exhibit a high degree of *political influence*. The generalization indicates that two concepts, socio-economic status and political influence, are related. If one goes up, so does the other, and vice versa. Since students must know the key concepts in a generalization before they can understand the statement, teachers should measure learning of the key concepts as well as the generalization itself. Generalizations, which are either true or false, depending on the data, are useful because they help students to interpret, explain or predict events.

Given these characteristics, how can a teacher determine whether students have learned a generalization? In this section, several approaches to that problem will be described, illustrated, and assessed in terms of the kind of inference that each method permits.

Stating or Selecting the Generalization

One commonly used approach to the measurement of the learning of generalizations involves constructing tasks that require students to state or select the words in a generalization. The test items that follow illustrate this general approach:

Example 1. How does technological innovation affect a culture?

Example 2. T or F — Technological innovation has both manifest and latent consequences for a culture.

Example 3. Technological innovation has both _____ and _____ consequences for a culture.

Example 4. Technological innovation leads to both:
   a. manifest and intended consequences.
   b. manifest and latent consequences.
   c. latent and unintended consequences.
   d. latent and unexpected consequences.

Do any of these questions provide a basis to infer that students who answer correctly have learned a generalization? The answer is no.

The questions are inadequate because they can be answered correctly by students who do *not* understand the generalization. Strings of words that form sentences can be learned either as generalizations or as verbal chains. Knowledge of a generalization requires understanding a relation-

ship between two or more concepts, but knowledge of a verbal chain involves recalling several words in an indicated order. Students can recite verbal chains without knowing what they are talking about. For example, a person can memorize a song in a foreign language and sing it perfectly without understanding the words. Since students can learn important sentences (generalizations) either as generalizations or as verbal chains, designing questions that discriminate between the two is an important teaching skill.

When a test question repeats the words used during instruction, or very similar words, students can answer correctly on the basis of a verbal chain. All of the illustrative questions could be answered on the basis of a verbal chain. The words "technological innovation" trigger students to say or select the words "manifest and latent consequences." Since no understanding is required to make the correct response, a teacher can *not* validly infer from this kind of performance whether students have learned a generalization.

When an evaluation item contains language that is substantially different from, but which means the same thing as, that used during instruction, students cannot answer on the basis of a verbal chain. Knowledge of the generalization is required to make a correct response. Following is an example of an appropriately reworded question:

Example: The introduction of new industrial practices in a culture produces both a) dormant and apparent changes, b) underlying and dormant outcomes, c) obvious and expected results, and d) surprise and underlying effects.

The wording of all the key concepts in a generalization must be changed; any unchanged words prompt students and permit them to answer on the basis of a verbal chain. Two useful aids for constructing reworded items are a dictionary of the social sciences and a thesaurus.

Only a limited inference about learning can be drawn from these measures. When students can answer a question involving a substantially reworded statement of a generalization, they have at least some understanding of it, but their knowledge is *not* necessarily broad or deep. Other kinds of questions are required to probe the limits of learning.

Using Generalizations to Describe, Explain or Predict

Questions that require students to use abstract generalizations provide a method to measure the depth of learning. But what can people do with generalized knowledge? How is it used?

Social studies generalizations can be used to describe, explain or predict. Describing means to give an account in words; explaining means either to give the reasons or causes of an event or to show how an event is subsumed under a scientific principle; and predicting means to form an inference regarding a future event based on probability theory. Questions can be constructed which require students to use generalizations in these ways.

Following are two examples of questions designed to require students to use generalized knowledge. The first one is designed to measure learning of the generalization that "political influence is positively related to socio-economic status," and the second example measures learning of the generalization that "technological innovation leads to both manifest and latent consequences."

Example 1. Directions. Rank each of the following men according to which would be most likely to sway a governmental decision in his favor (1 = most likely -- 4 = least likely).

_____ Mr. Reddy is president of First National Bank, one of the largest in the state. He graduated from Harvard University and earns $200,000 a year. His large brick house is located in the finest area in town. Mr. Reddy belongs to several exclusive country clubs.

_____ Mr. Sampson works for General Motors. As cars move past his work station on the assembly line, Mr. Sampson bolts the steering wheel in place. He earns $12,500 a year and lives in a small frame house near the factory. Mr. Sampson finished high school. He is a member of two bowling teams.

_____ Mr. Lancaster is a lawyer and earns $85,000 a year. He attended law school at a large state university. He lives in a well-to-do suburban neighborhood. He belongs to one of the better country clubs in town.

_____ Mr. Peabody is a school teacher and earns $10,500 a year. He attended the same university Mr. Lancaster did. Mr. Peabody belongs to a recently formed tennis club. He lives in a small, brick, ranch style house in a moderate income neighborhood.

In one sentence explain why you ranked these men as you did. _____

_____

Example 2. Directions. Read the case of the Papago Indians and answer the questions which follow it. (The case is adapted from one described in *Human Problems in Technological Change* edited by Edward H. Spicer.

The Papago Indians

The Papago Indians lived in southern Arizona. They changed their residence with the seasons, moving to the mountains near a permanent water supply in the winter, and living in the valleys during the summer months. The Papago tribe

consisted of many small and widely scattered villages. About 100 people lived in each village and they claimed the right to some water supply on the high country and to an area of fertile land in the valleys.

Their primary means of transporting goods was the pack horse. The Papagos had a unique method of packing for their travels. They made saddles of two round bundles of straw tied together with leather thongs and slung so that one rested on each side of a horse's back. Goods to be transported were placed in panniers, lightweight nets made from rawhide.

There was little specialization of labor among the villagers. All men worked in the fields, including the shamans — who occupied the most prestigious position in the group. Men also cared for the horses and made panniers. Papago men took great pride in their ability to weave the intricate panniers. Besides cooking, women were part-time makers of pottery ollas (containers) and straw baskets. Children gathered wood, arm load by arm load, from nearby forests and carried it to the village.

The Papago produced only a small surplus beyond their own needs. They grew a few extra crops, made some surplus ollas, and gathered a little extra wood. These items were valued by white townspeople, and the Papago occasionally carried their surplus to a distant town to trade for seeds, cloth, and other goods which the Indians desired.

Then, around the turn of the century, Indian agents provided the Papago with farm wagons made of iron and wood. The Papago eagerly welcomed the wagon, for its benefits were obvious, but even as they accepted it, the wagon began to transform their lives.

Directions: Part I. Listed below are several sentences that predict changes in the Papago culture. Some of these changes are likely to occur as a result of the wagon; others are unlikely to happen. Circle the number of any *likely change*.

1. The divorce rate will increase.
2. New statuses, such as blacksmith, will develop.
3. Men will specialize in cutting large quantities of wood.
4. Conflict between different Papago villages will increase.
5. Women will spend more time making ollas.
6. The skill of making panniers will be forgotten in a few generations.
7. The birth rate will decrease.
8. The prestige of the shaman will decrease.
9. The division of labor will increase.
10. The size of the villages will increase.

Part II: Which of the following statements best describes the Papagos' experience?

a. Material culture spreads from one society to another faster than non-material culture.
b. Technological change results in both chaos and confusion.
c. New industrial practices lead to both expected and unplanned results.
d. Isolated groups change more slowly than do groups in frequent contact with other cultures.
e. Outsiders should not tamper with the culture of other people.

In order to answer these questions correctly students must understand the generalization involved. Case studies can be used to form questions that require students to use a generalization to describe, explain or predict. For example, to form a descriptive task, present a short case study and require students to select the social studies generalization that best summarizes the event depicted at an abstract level. In order to form an explanatory problem, provide a case study and require students to select the generalization which gives the reasons for the occurrence portrayed in the case. Of course, the case studies must be new to the students in order to support a valid inference about learning.

Evaluation items can be constructed to measure the learning of generalizations at two levels. Tests which contain only items at the verbal level fail to probe the extent of learning. Yet tests which contain only items at the use level fail to distinguish students who have at least learned a generalization at the verbal level from those who learned nothing. Thus, both kinds of questions can provide useful information about learning.

Guidelines for Evaluating Learning of Generalizations

Following are some general guidelines for evaluating learning of generalizations:

1. Questions or tasks which require students to state or select the words in a generalization and which use language very similar to that used during instruction provide *no* basis for deciding whether students have learned a generalization.
2. Questions or tasks which require students to state or select the words in a generalization but which use language that is substantially different from the words used during instruction provide a basis to draw a limited inference about the learning of generalizations.
3. Questions or tasks which require students to describe, explain or predict new social events can be used to probe the limits of learning.

C. DRAWING INFERENCES ABOUT LEARNING IN THE COGNITIVE DOMAIN

Evaluation in the cognitive domain is designed to determine whether students have learned particular concepts and generalizations. After an instructional sequence, a teacher may hypothesize that each student has learned the concepts and generali-

zations taught, but that hypothesis cannot be confirmed until students correctly respond to questions that provide a basis for inferring that learning occurred.

A test of learning can be undermined in two ways. Questions that permit students who have not learned the concepts or generalizations to answer correctly lead to incorrect inferences. Consequently, test questions must distinguish between learning of a verbal chain and learning of concepts and generalizations.

Erroneous inferences can also result from test questions which tend to cause even students who have learned to answer incorrectly. Fortunately, it is fairly easy to eliminate these characteristics from evaluation questions by following the steps listed below:

1. The stem of a test item should generally be in the form of a question or incomplete *positive* statement. Negatively worded statements are too often misread or misunderstood.
2. If a negative statement must be used, underline the negative words, e.g., *not* or *no*.
3. Use the clearest, simplest language possible. Otherwise the item may measure reading ability rather than learning in social studies.
4. Avoid requiring students to go through any steps that are unrelated to the objective being tested.

Questions constructed in accord with the guidelines suggested provide a basis for deciding whether students have learned concepts and generalizations. Nevertheless, teachers should avoid overgeneralizing. The fact that students correctly answer a valid question does not mean that they have generalizable skill. Tests that contain several questions designed to measure each important concept or generalization provide a better indication of the transferability of learning than do tests with only one measure for each concept or generalization.

The Values Domain

The goals of values education include helping students to clarify their values and to develop the ability to make reasoned value choices. Values are clear when the basis for a particular moral choice can be explicitly identified. Values are rational if they can be supported by reasons. The focus of value inquiry is social issues from which invariably derive private concerns and conflicts in individual value structures. Social issues involve choices about the conditions and goals of society and about the political and individual actions that arise from such decisions. From this standpoint, evaluating the substantive values that students hold — those which are only distantly related to social issues — would be inappropriate. Instead, the purpose of evaluation is to determine whether students have learned the rational operations necessary to analyze complex social issues.

Before either effective instruction or valid evaluation can begin, some of the crucial skills involved must be identified. Some rational operations associated with values analysis are listed below:

1. Identifying and clarifying the central value issues or conflicts in a problem.
2. Analyzing alternative solutions, policies or actions.
3. Assessing the acceptability of value decisions.
4. Affirming, modifying or rejecting a value decision.

The purpose of this section is to show some ways to measure learning in each of these areas. Illustrative items can serve as guides for others to use when constructing tests. Many of the examples used in this section are based on illustrations in *Clarifying Public Controversy: An Approach to Social Studies* by Fred M. Newman and Donald W. Oliver. Comprehensive evaluation requires that learning be measured at two levels: the knowledge level and the performance level.

A. THE KNOWLEDGE LEVEL

The purpose of evaluation at this level is to determine whether students have learned each of the rational operations which contribute to the total complex ability called values analysis. Evaluation at the knowledge level is necessary for at least two reasons. First, students must know what the elements of values analysis are before they can be expected to perform them in a situation. Second, the process by which value decisions are reached is itself an object for reflection. Consequently, evaluating knowledge of the values analysis process is both legitimate and necessary.

Identifying and Clarifying the Central Issues and Conflicts in a Problem

Values analysis begins with a sense that a particular situation contains a moral problem. Before rational analysis can continue, the nature and dimensions of the problem must be clarified. Several skills are required to transform a vague sense into a clear problem for analysis. Some of the specific skills required and illustrative evaluation procedures are listed below:

1. Skill: Distinguishing among factual, definitional and value issues.

Example A. Directions: Each of the statements listed below makes either a factual, definitional or value claim. Identify

the kind of claim made in each sentence. F = factual, D = definitional and V = value.

F D V 1. Most people are against busing to achieve racial balance in public schools.

F D V 2. Democracy is the best form of government ever developed.

F D V 3. Students should have a right to be involved in school decisions.

F D V 4. Imperialism is the policy of extending the authority of a nation over foreign countries.

Example B. Directions: Below are short dialogue specimens in which the speakers have a disagreement. For each one, decide whether the disagreement is over facts, definitions, or values. F = facts, D = definitions and V = values.

F D V 1. Judy: "Religious affiliation is related to social class."
Hilary: "No it's not! Everyone is free to choose their own religion in this country."

F D V 2. Jason: "I'm in favor of capital punishment because it deters crime."
Eric: "Even so, it's a cruel and inhuman act that I oppose."

F D V 3. Eve: "A felony is a major or serious crime."
Connie: "That's wrong! A felony is a minor crime; a misdemeanor is a serious crime."

F D V 4. Jim: "Justice means an eye for an eye."
John: "Oh, no! Justice means compassion and fair play."

2. Skill: Relating specific issues to general values or philosophical positions.

Example. Directions. Match each specific claim in the left hand column with the general value that best supports it.

3. Skill: Identifying conflicting general values in specific situations.

Example. Directions: Read the case below and decide what general values are in conflict.

The state requires all parents to send their children to school. Joseph Haas belongs to a small religious group which does not want their children to become too "worldly." Therefore, the group does not want their children to attend school beyond the fourth grade. Mr. Haas has a son due to enter the fifth grade and he is undecided whether to send the boy to school or keep him home.

Which of the following values are in conflict?

☐ a. religion — equality

☐ b. truth — religion

☐ c. respect for law — personal convictions

☐ d. free choice — religious freedom

4. Skill: Identifying and clarifying key concepts by using examples, analogies, or general defining criteria.

Example A. Directions: Suppose you were discussing the issue "should the constitution be amended to prohibit forced busing of students to achieve racial balance in schools." Listed below are some words that might be used during the discussion. Place a check in front of the two words that would be most difficult to define.

☐ amendment	☐ forced busing
☐ Constitution	☐ racial balance
☐ equal opportunity	☐ quality education
☐ should	☐ school

Example B. Part I. Directions: Some of the questions listed below are clearly stated and you could meaningfully discuss the issue raised. Others are unclear because certain terms require clarifica-

Specific Claims	General Values
1. This school should spend as much money on girls' athletics as it does on boys' athletics.	Justice
2. The government has no right to ban the sale of cigarettes.	Social Stability
3. The government should freeze wages and prices in order to stop inflation.	Freedom of Choice
4. The state has a right to execute any convicted murderer.	Equality

tion before people could agree on their meaning. Place a check in front of any unclear questions.

☐ a. Is it all right to use drugs?

☐ b. Should students participate in decisions about textbooks because they are most affected by the kind of books used?

☐ c. Should the student council, by majority vote, have the right to accept or reject all school rules?

☐ d. Should public employees (police, firefighters, sanitation workers, school teachers) have the same right to strike that workers in private industry have?

Part II. Directions: For each unclear question that you identified in part one, a) indicate what word or words were unclear (subject to several meanings) and b) state what the word(s) mean to you either by writing a definition or by giving examples.

Analyzing Alternative Solutions, Policies or Actions

After a values problem has been identified, various solutions, policies, or actions can be analyzed. Thus an important rational operation is the ability to analyze these alternatives. Listed below are some specific skills included in this category and illustrative evaluation measures.

1. Skill: Assessing the relevance of statements for the issue under analysis.

Example. Directions: Suppose you were discussing the general topic of protest and dissent in a democracy. Specifically, you were arguing whether parents who oppose busing have the moral right to block the exit to a bus garage with a picket and thus prevent all school buses from leaving. At some point in the discussion each of the following statements was made. Decide whether each claim is relevant (R) or irrelevant (I) to the issue under discussion.

R or I a. The Supreme Court has ruled that busing is Constitutional and may be used to correct a situation where racial segregation occurred in schools.

R or I b. America is supposed to be the land of equality, but black people average only about half the income of white people.

R or I c. Most people, black and white alike, oppose forced busing.

R or I d. It is all right to disobey a law you believe is immoral as long as you do it openly and are willing to accept the consequences.

R or I e. I never did anything against black people, so I don't have any responsibility for correcting past injustices.

R or I f. If all the buses are prevented from leaving, then even kids who want to go to school can't get there.

2. Skill: Assessing the consistency and logic of arguments for or against an alternative.

Example. Directions: Suppose that each of the statements was made during a discussion of whether the federal government should guarantee a job to anyone who wants to work. Decide whether each statement is logical (L) or illogical (I).

L or I a. I oppose the policy because it will stimulate inflation.

L or I b. I oppose the policy because most unemployed people are too lazy to work.

L or I c. I oppose the policy because I am against governmental interference in the market place.

L or I d. I oppose the policy because I am against welfare.

3. Skill: Stating and responding to counter arguments.

Example. Read the dialogue about capital punishment and then answer the questions after it.

Henry: I favor capital punishment because it deters murder.

Helen: Social scientists have studied the effect of capital punishment and there's no evidence that it decreases the murder rate.

If Helen's statement is true, then the *one* thing that Henry must logically do is:

a. Change his position on capital punishment.
b. Continue to favor capital punishment.
c. Change his reasons for favoring capital punishment.
d. Drop out of the discussion because his position is wrong.

Assessing the Acceptability of Value Decisions

After analyzing various alternatives to a social issue, students can make tentative value decisions. The act of deciding cannot be evaluated as a distant task since it flows almost imperceptively out of the process of analyzing. Students can, however, evaluate the result of their decisions, a value choice, and teachers can evaluate the ability of students to apply rational assessment procedures to their own choices.

Once students can state a tentative value

decision, they can examine the choice to determine its acceptability to them by using any one of four procedures described by Jerrold R. Coombs and Milton O. Meux in *Values Education: Rationale, Strategies and Procedures.* The 41st yearbook published by the National Council for the Social Studies was edited by Lawrence E. Metcalf. These rational operations are briefly described below:

1. *The Role Reversal Procedure* requires students to empathetically change places with people adversely affected by the value choice and to determine whether the choice is still acceptable to them after viewing it from this new perspective.
2. *The Universal Consequences Procedure* requires a student to speculate about the results of everyone engaged in the action being evaluated. It then requires the students to determine whether the value choice is still acceptable to them.
3. *The General Application Procedure* requires a student to apply the choice to an analogous situation and then to determine whether the choice is still acceptable.
4. *The General Value Structure Procedure* requires students to consider how a particular value choice is connected to their general value system and to determine whether the choice is still acceptable.

Although not all of these procedures should or could be applied to any single choice, at least one of the operations can be used by students to assess the acceptability of nearly any value choice that they make about a social issue. Therefore, teachers need to measure student competency in using all of these skills.

Information about student learning can be acquired by having students respond, either verbally or in writing, to short answer questions which are given after students have analyzed a particular social issue and are able to state a value preference. Teachers can then use criteria to judge the quality of a student's response and use the answers as a basis for drawing inferences about learning.

Following are some suggested evaluation measures for each of the four skills:

1. Skill: Applying the *Role Reversal Procedure.*

Example. Directions: Answer the following questions about your value choice

a. What is your value choice concerning the issue?
b. What persons or groups would be adversely affected by your decision?
c. How would you feel about the choice if you were in the position of one of the people you identified in part b?

Criteria for evaluation:

a. The clarity of the statement.
b. The scope of the response, i.e., did the student recognize the full range of people that would be negatively affected?
c. The range of implications, i.e., did the student identify and discuss a number of different effects of the choice on the person?

2. Skill: Using the *Universal Consequences Procedure.*

Example. Directions: Answer the following questions about your value decision.

a. What is your value decision concerning the issue?
b. What do you think would happen if everyone acted in accordance with your decision?

Criteria for evaluation:

a. The clarity of the statement.
b. The number of consequences identified and the distinction between probable and improbable consequences.

3. Skill: Using the *General Application Procedure.*

(Notice that this procedure requires that students transform a specific value decision into a more general value principle.)

Example. Directions: Answer the following questions about your value decision.

a. What is your value decision concerning the issue? What reasons do you have for it?
b. After examining your reasons, what general value principal are you using to judge this case?
c. What situation, historical event, or short story can you think up that would support the value principle you stated in part b?
d. Suppose someone wanted to argue against the value principle in part b. What situation, historical event or short story, could they use to contradict it?

Criteria for evaluation:

a. The clarity of the statement.
b. The degree to which the general principle is implicit in the specific decision.
c. The relevancy of the analogy to the general principle.
d. The same as c.

4. Skill: Using the *General Value Structure Procedure.*

Example. Directions: Answer the following questions about your value decision.

a. What is your value decision concerning the issue?
b. What are some general social values that support your decision? Why do they support it?
c. Do you personally prize or cherish any of the values that you mentioned in question b?
d. Suppose that someone wanted to argue against your value decision in part a, what general social values might they use? Why do these general values contradict your decision in part a?

e. Do you personally prize or cherish any of the values that you mentioned in question d?

Criteria for evaluation:

a. The clarity of the statement.
b. The inclusiveness and relevancy of the statement, i.e., did the student mention a range of values and were they clearly connected to the specific decision in part a?
c. No criteria.
d. The same as b.
e. The same as c.

Affirming, Modifying or Rejecting a Value Decision

After students have assessed the acceptability of a tentative value decision, they can either affirm, modify, or reject the choice. Information about learning in this area can be collected by adding a final question to the questions used in the acceptability assessment section.

Example. Based on your previous answers, would you accept, modify, or reject the value decision stated in question a? Why or how?

Evaluation Criteria. The logic of the statement, i.e., is the answer reasonable on the basis of earlier statements? Is it consistent or inconsistent with statements made to the questions used to assess the acceptability of the value choice?

The context in which an evaluation item is raised affects the kind of inference that can be drawn from it. All of the evaluation procedures considered so far assess various rational operations in isolation. They can be used immediately after instruction on a particular skill to determine whether students learned from the instruction. Yet understanding values analysis requires more than knowledge of isolated intellectual skills; it requires understanding these skills in combination, as contributing to an on-going process of examining social issues. Therefore, it is important to determine whether students recognize rational operations in a context of doing values analysis.

Structured Dialogue Specimens

Structured dialogue specimens provide a way of putting the intellectual operations of values analysis into a context. The dialogue depicts people discussing a social issue and each statement is numbered. Students are required to identify the rational operation each statement performs in the dialogue. For example, students would respond to a series of questions similar to the following:

Example. Which of the following best describes what statement number one does in the discussion?

a. Makes a value claim.
b. Clarifies the meaning of a term.
c. Makes an irrelevant statement.
d. Attacks the motives of an opponent.

Teachers can develop structured dialogue specimens to measure student understanding of a variety of intellectual operations required for values analysis. When they are first used, the dialogues should be printed and should make each of the rational operations more obvious than they would be in natural verbal speech. As students gain competency in analyzing dialogue, excerpts from tape recorded class discussions of values analysis discussions can be used.

Drawing Inferences About Knowledge of Rational Operations

The assessment items in this section are designed to measure whether students learned certain rational operations and are valid for that purpose. Test items which require students to label the rational operations necessary for values analysis do not support an inference that students can actually conduct values analysis. To determine whether a student can do values analysis, a teacher must observe the student performing it.

B. THE PERFORMANCE LEVEL

Values analysis is a complex ability. At one level, students must demonstrate knowledge of its constituent intellectual operations. At another level, students must learn to use these rational skills without prompting while performing values analysis. Since most teachers work to help their students achieve competence at the performance level, techniques for evaluating a complex student performance are necessary.

Performance occurs in a setting and in a context. Advocates of values analysis portray it as a social activity — something that occurs while people interact. Thus a small group discussion provides an appropriate setting in which to evaluate skill at performing values analysis. Discussions require a context. A context for discussion can be established by providing the group with a case study that contains a moral problem. The evaluation techniques described in this section assume that students are discussing a social issue in a small group setting.

One approach to evaluation is to *rate* student performance. A teacher could observe students and make a gross judgment about the rational qualities reflected on the performance. Or a teacher could employ a rating scale composed of items similar to the one depicted as follows:

Organizational Quality
(circle one)

very well organized | well organized | adequately organized | somewhat unorganized | very unorganized

Ratings of overall quality of performance are unsatisfactory for several reasons. A major purpose of evaluation is to identify strengths and weaknesses in student performance so the weaknesses can be corrected. Students are not helped when they are told to make their arguments more rational or more organized. Improvement requires specific information. Rating judgments about complex performances are subject to shifting observer standards. Does a change over time from well organized to very well organized represent a change in student competency or does the change in rating reflect a shift in the observer's standards? When an evaluation technique cannot distinguish between change in the object observed and change in the standards of measurement, there is no basis for inferring that learning has occurred. Therefore, another method for evaluating student learning at the performance level is required.

Although neither impreciseness nor observer shifts can be totally eliminated, their distorting effects can be reduced by using a carefully developed observer checklist. An observation checklist is a structured instrument which permits an observer to record and classify crucial elements of behavior as they occur during a complex performance. Information collected by using a well constructed checklist is fairly objective.

A useful observation checklist has the following features:

1. *It defines the essential characteristics of a performance in concrete terms.* If words are imprecisely defined, different observers will use varying interpretations and classify information differently. Vague words also increase the likelihood that a single observer will shift his or her definitions from one time to another, which undermines inferences about learning.
2. *It avoids the use of subjective and arbitrary modifiers, e.g., extremely, very, etc.* The instrument should describe categories of behavior rather than judge the goodness or badness of behavior. Value judgments occur when a teacher decides what behaviors indicate a good performance. Once that decision is made, a teacher needs an instrument that aids in objectively determining whether the behaviors were present or absent in a student's performance.
3. *It states rules for use.* In order to provide useful information, the instrument must be used consistently from one observation to another. Since inferences about learning require repeated measures of student performance, it is necessary to state the rules for applying the instrument and to review both the definitions and the rules before each use. This practice reduces observer shifts and increased reliability.

An example of an observation checklist for values analysis performances is found following the rules for using it as stated below. Rules for using it are:

1. Write the names of the students on the columns across the top — one name per column.
2. Record an intellectual operation by making a slash in the appropriate box.
3. A student may perform more than one intellectual operation during a turn at talking. If so, tally each of the operations.
4. Record an intellectual operation as soon as you observe it. Do not try to observe the performance for a period of time and then summarize it. You may not remember what students did.

With a checklist a teacher can provide specific feedback to students. Strengths can be highlighted and weaknesses identified and appropriate instruction given to students.

Several things should be kept in mind when interpreting information collected on a checklist. If a student does not perform a particular behavior, that is no reason to infer that the student did not learn it. There may have been no reason for that behavior to have occurred in the context of the discussion. There is no one best order for the intellectual operations to be used. Values analysis is an interactive process. After one student speaks, another student can select one of several different behaviors that all contribute to rational analysis. There is no valid basis to rank some operations as more important than others. Each contributes to the process. The fact that a student does well on a single observation does not mean that the student has a generalized skill. In order to draw an inference about the learning of a complex ability such as values analysis, a teacher must make many observations over a period of time in a variety of settings as students analyze difference topics. the checklist provides a means for making the observations and for recording information from a series of observations.

Observation Checklist

Behavioral Characteristics	Names of Students in Group Observed				
A. CONTRIBUTING TO RATIONAL ANALYSIS					
1. Definition given or requested					
2. Factual evidence given or requested					
3. Inconsistency challenged					
4. Relevance questioned or explained					
5. Issue stated or refocused					
6. General values related to an issue					
7. Alternative suggested					
8. Concedes a point in light of a compelling argument					
9. Suggest consequences					
10. Acceptability of value decision tested (any of the four procedures)					
11. Accepts, modifies, rejects a value decision					
B. DETRACTING FROM RATIONAL ANALYSIS					
1. Irrelevant statement made					
2. Unclear statement made					
3. Claims repeated					
4. Issue changed					
5. No evidence given to support claim					
6. Inaccurate facts used					
7. Loaded words used					
8. Implausable consequences suggested					
9. Personally attacks others					
10. Inconsistent argument used					
11. Refusal to yield to valid counterpoint					

The Social Participation Domain

According to the guidelines, the goals of instruction in the social participation domain are as follows:

1. "To help students become effective . . . social actors in settings of their own choice and in the many groups which characterize . . . society," and
2. "To avoid such destructive behaviors as cynicism, apathy, anomie, feelings of futility, and ultimate disassociation from society."

Thus, evaluation in the social participation domain is designed to determine whether students learned participation skills and to detect changes in attitudes related to participation. Methods for collecting information and for making decisions about both of those questions will be discussed.

A. PARTICIPATION SKILL

Before either effective instruction or valid evaluation techniques can be designed, teachers must identify the social participation skills that they want students to learn. Since social participation occurs in group settings, role theory provides a way of organizing skills for purposes of instruction and evaluation.

A role is a pattern of behavior associated with a particular position within a group or social situation. There are several different participation roles, each of which requires certain skills. During its experimental stage, the High School Political Science Curriculum Project at the Social Studies Development Center in Bloomington, IN, identified five participation skills. (The center is jointly sponsored by the College of Arts and Sciences and the School of Education at Indiana University.)

1. **Observers** are people who listen carefully to group discussion and watch a group carry out activities. Observers are vital to any group. It is necessary for some people to keep silent, watch group activity, and try to make helpful suggestions for future activities of the group.
2. **Supporters** are people to help to carry out an activity. They are good at helping others to get things done. Without supporters, few groups could follow through on activities they plan.
3. **Advocates** are people who take a side on an issue and try to get others to agree with their position. An advocate is a person who has a strong position on an issue, can state it and provide supporting reasons for it.
4. **Facilitators** are people who try to help people understand other points of view and to aid the group in coming to a compromise on an issue. A facilitator trys to listen to both sides and to reconcile differences of opinion in order to get a group decision made.
5. **Organizers** are people who try to plan and put together group activities. An organizer is a leader. A person who can mobilize people behind a task and get things done in the group is an organizer.

Evaluation techniques can be designed to collect information for making decisions about whether or not students have learned to perform the behaviors required by each role.

Students need knowledge of participation roles before they can perform role behavior. Since each of the participation roles is a concept, knowledge learning can be evaluated by using techniques for concept evaluation previously described. Two examples are given below:

Example 1: Provide students with a short case study or transcript that depicts people playing participation roles in a group situation. Require students to label the role played by each person in the case study.

Example 2: Set up a role play situation involving the five participation roles. Require other students to identify the role played by each individual in the role playing situation.

If students can respond correctly to these kinds of questions, a teacher can infer that they have learned the concept of participation roles. These questions, however, provide no basis for inferring that students can perform the skills associated with each role.

In order to evaluate performance, a teacher must observe students play participation roles. Role play exercises provide a setting in which student performance can be observed.

Several steps are necessary to structure a role playing exercise. The teacher needs to provide a background sheet that describes the situation for the role players. Whatever situation is chosen should have two essential characteristics; it must require a group decision, and it must require the group to plan a course of action. Each player should also receive a role profile that describes how that person is related to the situation, i.e., what the person's interests are in the situation. The role profile should indicate which participation role a player is to assume, but it should not tell the student how to implement the role. If students have learned a participation role, they should be able to initiate the appropriate behavior for a role on command without prompts.

Teachers can use an observation checklist to

evaluate student performance. (The nature and use of observation checklists are described in the values domain section.) Behavior skills were identified in the previously mentioned High School Political Science Curriculum Project. It was funded through a grant from the National Science Foundation and sponsored by the American Political Science Association. The project has been revised and will be published by Prentice Hall in a book called *American Government: Comparing Political Experiences.*

1. **Observer Roles.** A successful observer:
   a. Listens carefully to group discussions.
   b. Obtains information about the issues under discussion.
   c. Refrains from disrupting group activity in any way or from making suggestions.
   d. Attempts to think about how he/she might help the group in the future.
2. **Supporter Roles.** A successful supporter:
   a. Is reliable.
   b. Takes directions.
   c. Works hard.
   d. Works well with others.
   e. Is thorough and careful in his/her work.
3. **Advocate Roles.** A successful advocate:
   a. Knows the general feelings of the group about an issue.
   b. States a clear position on an issue.
   c. Presents reasons for his/her position.
   d. Knows how to influence others (knows their interests and what will satisfy them).
4. **Facilitator Roles.** A successful facilitator:
   a. Restates and interprets others' positions on issues.
   b. Attempts to find a compromise position or solution to conflicting points of view.
   c. Demonstrates no vested interest in any single solution.
5. **Organizer Roles.** A successful organizer:
   a. Plans group activities.
   b. Matches people and tasks according to people's skills.
   c. Clearly identifies goals and priorities.
   d. Establishes clear roles and good working relationships among individuals.

If a student exhibits appropriate behavior for the participation role assigned, a teacher may infer that the student has learned some participation skills. Successful performance in one role, however, provides no basis to infer that a student has learned other roles. Most important, observation of in-class role play exercises provides no basis for deciding whether students have "become effective . . . social actors in settings of their own choice . . ."

In order to determine whether students can transfer their role skills to more complex settings, a teacher must collect information about student performance in situations outside the classroom. Yet it is impossible for one teacher to directly observe all the students in a class in participation settings outside the classroom. Therefore, indirect observation methods must be used.

There are several ways a teacher can collect information about participation performances outside the classroom. One possibility is to pair students for out-of-class participation activities. One student in the pair could serve as an observer while the other student performs a participation role. The observer could complete an observation checklist which would provide information for evaluation. Another possibility is to have students complete a self-reporting instrument after they participate in a group situation of their choice.

Both of these means provide information, but only tenuous inferences can be drawn from the information. A teacher could use the information to conduct a debriefing session with a student. Students could describe and analyze their behavior in the participation, and the teacher could make evaluative judgments about the performance.

To summarize, participation skills need to be evaluated at three levels. First, teachers need to decide whether students intellectually understand the skills. Second, teachers need to determine whether students can perform the skills in simple settings. Third, teachers need to decide whether students can perform participation skills in complex settings outside the classroom. Each level requires a different kind of evaluation approach.

B. PARTICIPATION ATTITUDES

An attitude is a learned emotional predisposition to consistently react either favorably or unfavorably toward a person, object, or idea. A student's attitude toward something cannot be inferred from his or her knowledge of it. For example, a teacher can observe that a student has learned some social participation skills but that information provides no basis for the teacher to draw inferences about the student's attitude toward social participation. Consequently, attitudes must be measured separately from knowledge.

Information about attitudes can be collected by using attitude scales. An attitude scale contains a series of positive or negative statements about something. The extent to which an individual agrees or disagrees with the statement indicates that person's attitudes toward the object being measured. For example, consider one of the attitudes mentioned in the guidelines, feelings of futility. Below is a scale designed to measure attitudes of "political futility" from a University of Michigan publication, *Measures of Social Psychological Attitudes* by John P. Robinson, and Phillip R. Shaver.

Directions: Read each sentence below and circle the response that indicates your opinion. There are no right or wrong answers; the best answer is the way you honestly feel.

1. I believe public officials don't care much what what people like me think.

strongly agree | agree | uncertain | disagree | strongly disagree

2. There is no way other than voting that people like me can influence actions of the government.

strongly agree | agree | uncertain | disagree | strongly disagree

3. Sometimes politics and government seem so complicated that I can't really understand what's going on.

strongly agree | agree | uncertain | disagree | strongly disagree

4. People like me don't have any say about what the government does.

strongly agree | agree | uncertain | disagree | strongly disagree

To score an attitude scale each response is given a value, e.g., strongly agree = 5, agree = 4, etc. These values are added and that sum is divided by the number of items to determine an individual's score. In this case, the higher the score, the higher the individual's attitude of political futility. If both positively and negatively worded statements are included in the scale, then some items are reversed when scoring.

Because constructing a valid and reliable attitude scale requires time and resources unavailable to most teachers, it is recommended that teachers select appropriate scales from existing sources rather than constructing new scales. Two sources which contain attitude scales are listed below:

1. *Measures of Political Attitudes*, John P. Robinson, Jerrold G. Rusk, and Kendra B. Head, Publications Division, Institute for Social Research, The University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, MI 48106.
2. *Measures of Social Psychological Attitudes*, John P. Robinson and Phillip R. Shaver, Publications Division, Institute for Social Research, The University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, MI 48106.

Several considerations should be made when selecting an attitude scale. The first is determining what attitudes should be measured. The chart below identifies attitudes mentioned in the guidelines and some related constructs for which measures are available in the sources previously cited.

Participation Attitudes

Attitudes Mentioned in the Guidelines	*Related Attitudes for which Scales are Available*
1. Cynicism	1. Cynicism, Social Trust, Political Trust.
2. Apathy	2. Political Apathy, Political Interest.
3. Anomie	3. Anomia, Anomie, Social Integration.
4. Feelings of Futility	4. Powerlessness, Helplessness, Efficacy.
5. Ultimate Dissociation from Society	5. Alienation, Social Integration.

Despite the existence of a large number of scales, teachers should limit the number of attitudes measured because students are easily "turned-off" by completing too many scales.

A second consideration is whether the scale is valid and reliable. Validity is the degree to which a scale actually measures what it claims to measure. Information concerning validity should always be reported. No matter what the author of a scale may say, teachers should determine themselves whether the scale is valid for their purposes. Both the definition of the attitude which the scale is supposed to measure and the items in the scale should be examined to determine whether they correspond to what the teacher wants to measure. Reliability is the accuracy of the scale from one measurement to another one. Reliability is reported as a correlation coefficient that ranges from -1 to 1.0. In general, the higher the reliability coefficient, the less measurement error in the scale. A coefficient below .7 makes the scale unacceptable. Any coefficient above .8 is considered acceptable.

A third consideration is whether the items in the scale are appropriate for the students and the community. Reading level should be assessed to determine whether students can understand and thus respond meaningfully. Since some attitude scales raise sensitive issues, a teacher should consider the political implications of using any particular scale.

Measuring attitudes at several times during a year will permit a teacher to detect any changes and to describe the direction of the change but there are several limitations on the inferences that can be drawn from attitude scales. They are generally inappropriate for measuring change in a single

individual because even the better scales contain enough measurement error sufficient to make inferences about individuals tenuous. Consequently, it is best to measure attitudes in terms of class means, rather than individual scores. Students can frequently distinguish between "good" and "bad" attitudes, and there is a strong tendency for them to give socially desirable answers. The distorting effect of social desirability can be reduced by having students respond anonymously and by assuring them that their responses will not affect their grade. Of course, measuring a change in attitude does not support an inference that instruction in social studies caused the change.

Practical Suggestions for Test Questions

The following, unpublished article discusses materials which were developed for use in the Newark, DE, school systems as well as other schools outside Indiana. Permission has been granted to use the article which outlines many techniques designed to help teachers evaluate student achievement.

So you think you would like to improve your test questions? Good! One of our weakest areas as social studies teachers is often the inability to write good test questions for determining student mastery of chapter, unit, or semester objectives. It is difficult to fault students who get upset over our tests for they often contain tricky, trivial questions or questions that are unrelated either to the nature of what has transpired in previous class sessions or to what we have claimed as our objectives for the class. Students have a right to expect more from us as professional educators.

"All right," you may say, "but where am I supposed to learn how to write better questions or to find time to write them if I knew how? Measurement texts scare me, and besides, I don't have the time even to read through one of them, let alone do all that it says to do to improve my test questions." I agree that measurement texts can be scary propositions, but I believe the other problems which you raise can be dealt with effectively. It is really rather easy to improve the quality of your test questions if you follow the guidelines presented below. By following these guidelines, you are not likely to set the world on fire with perfect questions overnight, but success — as with good medicine — may come in small units. And it should not take you much longer to write questions following these rules than it does now to develop the objective portions of your tests.

Begin by reading the following unit objective and the samples from two teacher-made tests of that objective which are reproduced below. See if you can describe in one sentence the major substantive difference between the two sets of sample questions.

UNIT OBJECTIVE: Students will understand the role of the Supreme Court in the federal government of the United States.

Sample questions from Teacher A's test for this unit:

1. The largest number of justices to serve on the Supreme Court at any one time was

   (a) 9 *(B) 10 (C) 11 (D) 12

2. Which of the following powers was not specifically granted to the Supreme Court by the Constitution?

   (A) To decide cases affecting United States ambassadors
   (B) To settle an argument between an individual or group and the United States government
   *(C) To determine whether a state or federal law violates the Consitution or a Constitutional Amendment
   (D) To resolve controversies between two or more states, between citizens of different states, and between a state and citizens of another state

3. The current Chief Justice of the Supreme Court is

   *(A) Warren E. Burger (C) William O. Douglas
   (B) Harry A. Blackmun (D) Lewis F. Powell, Jr.

Sample questions from Teacher B's test for this unit:

1. Of the following, which chief justice probably did more to shape the overall role of the Supreme Court than the others?

   *(A) John Marshall, 1801-1835
   (B) Roger B. Taney, 1836-1864
   (C) Earl Warren, 1953-1969
   (D) Warren E. Burger, 1969-present

2. Which of the following powers has enabled the Supreme Court to keep the Constitution up to

---

*Correct Answer

date in terms of accounting for the drastic social and political changes that have occurred since its adoption in 1787?

(A) To judge whether a specific action by a lower court violated the rights of a defendant being tried in that court
(B) To interpret the federal laws
(C) To determine whether a state or federal law violates the Constitution or a Constitutional Amendment
*(D) To reinterpret a part of the Constitution or its Amendments, making it apply to actions or situations where it had not been applied before

3. Suppose your state passes a law which you think discriminates against you unfairly and that you deliberately break the law. A state court tries you, finds you guilty, and imposes a sentence in accordance with the law, but you appeal the decision to the federal court system. What will you most likely be asking the federal court to decide?

(A) Whether the proceedings during your trial in the state court were fair
(B) Whether your state has the right to punish you for civil disobedience
*(C) Whether the state law which you broke was Consitutional
(D) Whether you broke the state law

All right. What differences did you find? How about: Teacher B uses more words than Teacher A. True, but hardly substantive. Now try this one:

> Teacher A's questions require students to identify particular pieces of information related to the unit objective, whereas Teacher B's questions require students to apply such information as the basis for making judgments and drawing conclusions.

This difference is only true, however, insofar as Teacher B has never discussed in class nor assigned readings to students which were directed at the specific judgments and conclusions that he/she asked for in the test questions. If Teacher B discussed in class just these features of the role of the Supreme Court, then the second set of questions is also only a set of recall, or information-seeking, questions. To the extent that this apparent difference between the two sets of questions is a real one, we have located a substantive difference between them.

Most test questions which are used in social studies classrooms as the basis for determining student achievement are more like those of Teacher A than Teacher B.[1] The steps presented here are designed to aid you in moving from Teacher A-type questions to Teacher B-type questions. This seems worthwhile, for it should enable you to tap a dimension of your students' skills and abilities that you may not have measured well in the past. Furthermore, if you are like most social studies teachers, you have in mind many higher-level thinking processes as outcomes from the instruction you engage in with students. You owe it to yourself and to your students to measure your real objectives as best you can rather than to measure well objectives which are easy to measure but relatively unimportant.

Step I: Know what your objectives are and use them exclusively as the basis for test questions.

Every test question which you write measures some objective. Anyone who looks at your test questions can infer from them the objectives which are being measured. Students do this as well as professional educators, and they quickly figure out what to "study" when they see your first test or quiz of the year. Most students will concentrate on the kinds of things they must handle well in order to earn high marks. For them what you say is important is not nearly as impressive as what your tests say is important. It is wise, therefore, to have your real objectives well in mind, and to eliminate any test questions not related to them. In fact, the only questions that ever ought to be used on a test are those which directly relate to one of your objectives, regardless of how interesting or "cute" particular questions may be.

The specificity of your objectives is not critical, unless you wish to share them with your students or colleagues. The unit objective on which the sample tests above were based is certainly not a

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*Correct Answer

[1]An informal survey undertaken by the author during 1971-72 indicated that nearly three-fourths of the test questions accompanying secondary social studies curriculum materials were recall questions. Nearly 90 per cent involved recall questions at the elementary level. Teachers fared little better. Secondary teachers' objective questions involved recall nearly two-thirds of the time; elementary teachers' questions more than 85 per cent of the time. Essay questions, where scoring rubrics or examples were provided, were no better. More than two-thirds of the essay questions surveyed were scored as if recall information was more important than higher-level thought processes. Test publishers were the worst of all in this regard. Aside from map, graph, and table reading questions, fully 90 per cent of published elementary and secondary social studies test questions that were surveyed involved recall of specific information.

behavioral objective. Its verb "understand" is open to varying interpretations, such as those given it by Teachers A and B. But, if you are handling both classroom instruction and test construction by yourself, objectives of that specificity are probably adequate as a starting point, and certainly better than none at all.

Step II: Base each question that you write on a single, specific idea, concept, or piece of information derived from one of your objectives.

"Now wait a minute," you may say when you see this one. "That's what I do when I write questions like Teacher A's." Good point! You are exactly right — that is what you do to write recall or information-seeking questions. But there is one important difference between its use in those situations and its use in writing questions like Teacher B's questions. For Teacher A this step is the last one he or she ever takes before actually writing the question; Teacher B goes at least one step further. In other words, for one this guideline produces the test question, whereas for the other it is merely another useful step leading up to writing the test question.

Step III: Determine what students would be able to do if they were able to use each idea, concept, or piece of information rather than merely know it.

For the time being, forget about whether you are going to write a question that requires students to apply, analyze, synthesize, evaluate and so forth. You must start with something more simple in order to keep the task of improving your questions manageable. In fact, this Step III guideline can be distilled to the very simple but significant difference between two of its words: use *vs.* know.

There are myriad ways in which people can "use" ideas, concepts, and so forth. It may be useful, therefore, to consider three specific uses which students could make of such information. Specifically, ask yourself what students could do if they could 1) predict, 2) judge, or 3) interpret events using the idea, concept, or piece of information which you identified in Step II. It may be useful at first to actually write down a predication, judgment, or interpretation which students could make if they knew each of the items that you derived in Step II.

Step IV: Write your test question[s] based on the uses of information which you specified at Step III.

If you have been able to state your objectives, identify specific ideas or concepts which are incorporated within them, and indicate judgments, predictions, or interpretations which students could make using the ideas or concepts, the task of actually writing your test questions will be relatively simple. It is not terribly important whether you prefer to use true-false, multiple choice, or matching questions. What is important is that in whatever form of question you use, you pose the question so that students must make the judgment, prediction, or interpretation which you identified in Step III. The following example of the entire process may help you see more clearly the interrelationships among the four steps.

An Example

Let's begin by taking another objective, this time one from a more historical setting:

Objective: Students will understand why the authors of the Articles of Confederation carefully avoided giving much power to the central government.

There are a number of important ideas and concepts embedded in this objective. For purposes of illustration, suppose that we identify just one idea at Step II: the idea that a person who has a bad experience will usually try to avoid repeating that experience. We know, of course, that many colonists objected strenuously to the centralized power of the British government and its influence over them through laws, governors, judges, and so forth. It is relatively safe to conclude that the weakness of the central government under the Articles of Confederation was an avoidance-type response to the perceived evils of a strong British central government.

At Step III, our task then is to indicate judgments, predictions, or interpretations that students might make if they could relate the notion that a person having a bad experience will try to avoid repeating it to the objective which we stated at Step I. Consider these:

1. Judge the similarity of a hypothetical event to the setting of the Articles of Confederation.
2. Predict avoidance behavior in similar circumstances.
3. Interpret a similar historical event in terms of the idea.

Here you see three different ways of getting at the idea stated at Step II. Each of the three uses of the idea, however, comes at it from a slightly different perspective. It would be up to you to pick one of them and base a test question upon it. Of the three, judgment and prediction are the most similar. In each case, it would be up to you to write a stem for a question which would clearly indicate to students the task that was set for them. Consider this example:

> Which of the following hypothetical events raises issues most similar to those considered by the Second Continental Congress in deciding how much power to give the central government under the Articles of Confederation?

As with Teacher B's questions, this one is a bit wordy but it clearly presents a different task for students than the question that you would ask if you stopped after Step II and wrote a Teacher A-type question:

> Which of the following explains why the Articles of Confederation gave so little power to the central government?

In the first stem you are asking students to judge the similarity of an event with which they are not familiar to one with which they are familiar; in the second case, you are merely asking the student to identify the "correct" explanation.

From the standpoint of instruction, the Step III interpretation might provide the most useful basis for a test question. It is, however, also the most difficult to write. Here you would be looking for an historical event which your students have studied that would reflect some of the same characteristics as those involved in determining the power of the central government under the Articles of Confederation. For this, you could use a stem similar to the one above for the judgment, or you could use a stem such as the following:

> Which of the following represents the chief similarity between event A and event B?

In this case, event A could be the determination to give the central government severely limited power and event B could be another event, studied in class that reflects some of the same characteristics. The correct answer to this question would obviously be a restatement of the idea which you developed in Step II.

Conclusion

If you carefully follow these four steps, you should be able to improve your test questions noticeably in a relatively short time. You can further improve them by undertaking the entire process in cooperation with a colleague so that you both have the benefit of independent critiques of each other's efforts. The process can also be used as an effective instructional tool. Discuss the relationship between objectives and test questions with your students; then devote a part of your instructional time to student development of Teacher B-type questions. They will learn more than you about the application of information versus the mere knowing of it.

Evaluating Inservice and Workshop Activities

This paper, also written for the Newark, DE, school systems offers some guidelines about inservice and workshop activities evaluations.

There are three distinct aspects of activities which are subject to evaluation. These are:

1. An evaluation of the plans which you have made (See Part I);
2. An evaluation of the activities which actually are carried out (See Part I);
3. An evaluation of the extent to which teacher and/or student behavior has been changed as a result of the workshop activity (See Part II).

A brief description of each of these follows with some suggestions regarding the kinds of questions that should be asked. Since your individual case may not fit the exact questions which are suggested here, you are urged to delete questions which are inappropriate, or add others which are necessary for a complete evaluation. The main point to consider at each stage of the evaluation is whether or not you have been comprehensive in asking the kinds of questions that will lead to a valid assessment of the value of your activity. Please note that you will be required to submit written evaluations for only the second and third aspects of the evaluation listed above. The first aspect is to help you reconsider your plans and objectives before you begin your activity, so that you may make the most of it.

PART I

A feature of inservice plans is the opportunity for individual teachers, or groups of teachers, in the Newark School District to plan and carry out their own inservice activity. Since the current professional negotiations agreement between the NSEA and the Newark School District Board of Education requires all inservice programs to be evaluated, even these self-planned individual or group activities must be evaluated.

An Evaluation of Your Inservice Plan

One aspect of evaluation which is often overlooked is the evaluation of the design for an inservice activity. It is often good and productive to sit back and take a careful second look at plans which you may have made on the spur of the moment in order to meet a deadline. Among the questions to be considered in this context are:

1. Have your objectives been clearly specified? Or, in other words, have you clearly thought out exactly what it is that you, or other participants, should be able to do or have at the end of your inservice activity that you could not do or have before it began?
2. Are you certain that all of the activity which you

have planned will lead toward the accomplishment of these objectives? Have you omitted some activities which would be essential?
3. Can you reasonably expect these objectives to be accomplished in one full day session and one half day session? In other words, are your objectives and the activities which you have planned conducive to being accomplished in the allotted time?
4. Have you provided for a variety of activities in order to provide ample opportunity for lecture-type instruction as well as opportunity for participants to actually practice or develop those things which are specified in your objectives?
5. Are the staff and resource personnel which you have available clearly capable of helping you achieve your inservice activity objectives?
6. Have you made arrangements to have available all of the equipment and supplies which are necessary for carrying out your planned activity?

An Evaluation of the Activities Which Are Carried Out

A basic part of the evaluation involves the provision for participants to make an appraisal of the inservice activity. Evaluation by the participants should be carried out as the inservice program concludes. This may be accomplished through the use of a questionnaire (see attached sample). If you wish to use *this* form, copies are available from this office. If you make up your own evaluation form, please be sure to include the three items under COMMENTS.

Questions to consider for the evaluation of inservice or workshop activities include the following:

A. Planning

1. Did it appear to you that the staff for this inservice activity prepared adequately?
2. Did it seem to you that there were some important areas related to this topic that were omitted? Was too much time spent on some relatively unimportant areas?
3. Did the staff of your inservice activity appear to know what the goals and objectives of the activity were?
4. Were you informed ahead of time as to what the inservice objectives were, and what role you would be expected to play during the inservice activity?

B. Mechanics and Organization

1. Was the workshop too long or too short?
2. Were adequate physical and library facilities available? If not, what would have been desirable?
3. Were adequate resource materials and personnel available as necessary?
4. Was time allocated appropriately among various components of the inservice objectives?
5. Was there a variety of activities used during the instructional process?

C. Substantive

1. To what extent were the stated objectives of the inservice activity realized in your estimation?
2. To what extent did you personally meet the inservice objectives?
3. Did the individuals working with you in the inservice activity develop usable plans for use in teaching, in their classroom, in supervision, etc.?

D. Overall

1. In your estimation, what were the particular strengths of this inservice activity? What were its particular weaknesses?
2. If you had it to do over again, would you attend the same inservice activity? Why or why not?
3. What suggestions can you give to the inservice staff for improving this activity before it is presented again?

PART II

A Follow-up Evaluation of Workshops Extending Beyond the Time Allotted for District Inservice

As part of the funding agreement, each workshop director (leader) is responsible for a post workshop evaluation.

A follow-up evaluation should be conducted as soon after the workshop activity as feasible, but long enough afterward so that the desired changes in teacher/student behavior may have a chance to show up. Some of the points to be considered in a follow-up evaluation include these:

1. Has teacher behavior changed in line with the workshop objectives? In other words, wherever workshop objectives specified some change in teacher behavior, has that change occurred?
2. Has student behavior been changed in line with the workshop objectives?
3. To what extent were the workshop staff and resource personnel available for follow-up work with the participants?
4. What materials did teachers actually have for use in their classroom as a result of the workshop activity?
5. To what extent have some individual participants already gone well beyond the level of instruction included in the workshop activity?

SPECIFIC ACCOMPLISHMENTS SHOULD BE LISTED, INCLUDING MATERIALS PRODUCED, DECISIONS REACHED, CHANGES IN PARTICIPANT BEHAVIOR REALIZED, ETC.

INSERVICE AND WORKSHOP OPINION SURVEY
(Newark, DE, School District)

Please indicate your response on the scale provided.

1. Preparation by leader	5	4	3	2	1
	Adequate				Inadequate
2. Inclusion of pertinent topics	5	4	3	2	1
	Sufficient				Insufficient
3. Budgeting of time	5	4	3	2	1
	With Wisdom				Wasteful
4. Explanation of objectives	5	4	3	2	1
	Thorough				Incomplete
5. Participant's awareness of objectives	5	4	3	2	1
	Clear				Vague
6. Length of time of workshop	5	4	3	2	1
	Sufficient				Too Short
7. Physical facilities	5	4	3	2	1
	Suitable				Unsuitable
8. Resource materials and/or personnel	5	4	3	2	1
	Available				Lacking
9. Variety of activities	5	4	3	2	1
	Sufficient				Insufficient
10. Accomplishment of objectives	5	4	3	2	1
	To a Great Extent				Not at All
11. "Take Home" plans or ideas	5	4	3	2	1
	Useful				"Round File"

COMMENTS: (Use back of page)

1. Strengths of Workshop
2. Weaknesses of Workshop
3. Suggestions for Future School Years

(PLEASE GIVE THOUGHT TO THIS. YOUR SUGGESTIONS WILL BE USED IN PLANNING FOR NEXT YEAR. *THIS IS YOUR OPPORTUNITY* FOR INPUT IN THE DISTRICT'S INSERVICE PLANNING. THANK YOU.)

_____
NAME AND/OR NUMBER OF WORKSHOP

I. General Instructions for Completing Observations

A. Before undertaking the observation, it is recommended that time be taken to review each statement in the Classroom Observation Scale and how it is scored. This will enable you to spend your time more profitably during the actual observation.

B. The cover page for the Classroom Observation Scale requests a number of items of background information regarding the classroom being observed. The scale itself consists of 56 numbered statements which describe various components of a classroom. It is divided into three sections:

Observation: statements 1 to 25
Student Responses: statements 26 to 46
Teacher Responses: statements 47 to 56

C. To some extent each of the statements in the Classroom Observation Scale will reflect the classroom you will be observing. At the left of each statement there is a row of numbers in a response block: 1 2 3 4 5. Your observation regarding each statement is to be indicated by circling one of these numbers.

Circling number 5 indicates that the statement is an excellent description of the program and is completely accurate. Circling number 1 indicates that the statement barely describes the program. Circling numbers from 2 through 4 indicates various points between the two extremes. Appropriate descriptors are provided at the top of each column of numbers for your guidance. guidance.

D. Some statements may not immediately appear answerable, but you are urged to make every effort to "dig out" the required observation. Ideally, all statements are to be marked; nothing is to be left blank. However, if after intense research, you still cannot mark a statement, you may leave it blank.

E. Here are descriptions of some sample observations.

1. Statement 1 on the observation is "Students work without direct supervision." If you feel that only a few of the students appear to be working without direct supervision, with the majority directly "under the eye" of the teacher, then you would circle number 1 to the left of statement 1. However, if, as you observe in the room, you decide just about every student is working without direct supervision, then the statement completely describes the classroom situation. Your response would be number 5 and you would circle that number to the left of statement 1.

2. For some statements the response may seem to be limited to "yes" or "no." (For example, statement 32) For any "no" response, circle a rating of 1. A "yes" response will have a different value to the degree that the behavior is in evidence.

II. Specific Instructions

This scale may be administered either by someone in the classroom or by an outside observer. If it is to be self-administered, follow the instructions headed "Instructions for Self-Administration." If it is to be administered by an outside observer, follow the instructions headed "Instructions for Outside Observers."

A. Instructions for Self-Administration

1. Background Information

Select or plan a 45-minute time period which you feel is or will be representative of your classroom. Use it as the basis for your observation. If you select a time period which has already passed, write down notes regarding as many features of that classroom as you can possibly remember. If you are planning a 45-minute time period during which observation is to be conducted, make notes regarding your planning and observations during that period to be used as the basis for filling out the Classroom Observation Scale. Then fill in the requested information on the cover sheet of the Classroom Observation Scale.

It is important to keep in mind as you complete the Classroom Observation Scale that you are to look as objectively as possible at what is transpiring in your classroom. The closer you come to marking actual observations, the more useful your markings become. In other words, mark your observations as if you were an outside observer, trying to make them identical with those of any other person who would come into the classroom and observe the same lesson which you are "observing."

2. Observation Section

Make a judgment on each statement according to the general instructions, Part I-C, above.

3. Student Responses Section

As a classroom teacher, you are obviously familiar with your classroom and your students. You should be able to respond to these statements with a minimum of student questioning. However, as you mark each statement, try to imagine the responses your students would give to a visitor who is asking questions about these statements. For example, how would your students respond to an outsider who asked, "Do you feel free to tell your teacher how you feel?" (Statement 29), or "Do you decide with whom you will work?" (Statement 38).

Some of the student response statements might appear to be applicable to an entire day or to all subject matters. To the best of your ability, however, mark these statements as they apply to students in the subject matter area being studied during the period of observation.

4. Teacher Responses Section

This section is designed to elicit information that is available only from you as the teacher. Respond to it in the same manner as you did the previous section. Imagine,

for example, that an outside observer is asking you these questions regarding the time period during which the observation took place. Mark each one as you would have responded to that outside observer.

B. Instructions for Outside Observers

1. Background Information

   Working with the teacher, select a 45-minute time period during which you will conduct your observation. Then fill in the appropriate background information on the cover sheet of the Classroom Observation Scale.

2. Observation Statements

   Your task while in the classroom is to observe behavior relating to as many of the statements on the Classroom Observation Scale as possible. Most of those for which you can readily observe data or behavior are in the Observation section. *For all Observation statements base your markings on what you actually observe during the time period and not on what you believe might take place.* While in the room, make a judgment on each statement according to the general instructions above.

   Divide your observation period into three parts. First, move around the room and observe the classroom in operation for about 20 minutes. Then select a quiet spot and mark as many statements as you can. Finally, continue your observation, moving around the room as needed in order to observe behavior relating to the remaining unmarked statements.

3. Student Responses Section

   This section is designed to elicit information about the classroom which may not be readily observable. Walk around the room, sample the students' responses in order to respond to statements 26-46. Questions should be paraphrased to make the questioning relaxed and to use language appropriate to the maturity of the students. Ask several questions of each student that you sample. And before marking any one statement, be sure that you have talked with at least three students concerning that particular statement. You may, of course, mark the items in any order which is most efficient for you.

4. Teacher Responses Section

   This section is designed to elicit information that is probably available only from the teacher. Spend a few minutes with the teacher after the observation period and ask appropriate questions. Here, too, the questions may be paraphrased or grouped to make the most efficient use of your time.

III. Scoring the Classroom Observation Scale

A. Make a copy of this page for each observation completed.

B. Then record below the identifying information from the front of the Classroom Observation Scale:

Teacher being observed: _____

Date: _____

School where observation takes place: _____

_____

C. Directions for Scoring

1. Scan the responses to determine whether any statements have been omitted. Draw a line completely through omitted statements and the rating numbers in front of them.

2. Count the number of statements which were marked by the observer, omitting those through which lines have been drawn. Place this number in the two boxes labeled "B" below.

3. Several of the statements are worded so that circling a 1 implies a high rather than low degree of individualization, as for most other statements. Thus, for these statements, write the following number to the right of the response block and cross out the circled response in the response block.
   - Write a 5 if the observer circled a 1.
   - Write a 4 if the observer circled a 2.
   - Write a 3 if the observer circled a 3.
   - Write a 2 if the observer circled a 4.
   - Write a 1 if the observer circled a 5.

   Remember that this is to be done only for statements numbered 3, 8, 16, 17, 23, 32, 43, 51 and 56.

4. Find the sum of all ratings, whether circled in the response block or written to the right of it. Place this number in the box marked "A" below.

   A B C

   ☐ − ☐ = ☐ corrected raw score

   B D

   4 X ☐ = ☐ scale potential

5. Perform the indicated computations to obtain C, the Corrected Raw Score, and D, the Scale Potential. Write these two numbers in the boxes marked "C" and

"D," respectively, below.

Program Score

C D E

☐ ÷ ☐ = ☐ X 100 =

6. Compute E, as indicated. Round it to two decimal places and multiply by 100 to obtain the Program Score.

Observation Scale

Background Information

School where observation takes place: _____

Name of teacher(s) being observed: _____

Name of observer (if other than teacher): _____

Date of observation: _____

Time of day: _____

Grade level(s) of students in classroom: _____

Subject matter of instruction during observation: _____

Total number of adults in classroom during observation: _____

Number of students in classroom during observation: _____

Somewhat	Barely	Moderately	Considerably	Completely
1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5

TO WHAT EXTENT DO THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS* DESCRIBE THE PROGRAM?

Observation

1. Students work without direct supervision.
2. Students locate sources of information without asking teacher(s).
3. Student behavior is non-productive.
4. Students gather necessary materials for a given task.
5. Students have free access to materials and equipment.
6. There is a wide selection of instructional equipment (A-V, or any special item appropriate to the subject) in the classroom.
7. Different instructional materials are in use by different students simultaneously.
8. The teacher specifies beginning and ending times for most tasks.
9. There are teacher-made materials, devices, etc., in the room.
10. Different instructional strategies (e.g. reading, discussion, writing, etc.) are in use simultaneously.
11. Materials and equipment are arranged in interest areas by subject or special topic.
12. Informal student groups are observed.
13. Skills groups are formed as needed.

*Statements adapted from Project Individualized Instruction.

Barely	Somewhat	Moderately	Considerably	Completely	
1	2	3	4	5	14. There is peer teaching in the classroom.
1	2	3	4	5	15. Students move around the room freely.
1	2	3	4	5	16. Students may not talk while they are working.
1	2	3	4	5	17. Students' desks are arranged in rows.
1	2	3	4	5	18. The available instructional materials are appropriate for a wide range of abilities.
1	2	3	4	5	19. The teacher interacts with individual students while they are working.
1	2	3	4	5	20. Instructional time is primarily devoted to working with individuals and small groups.
1	2	3	4	5	21. A wide variety of instructional materials is available.
1	2	3	4	5	22. Different students work on different tasks simultaneously.
1	2	3	4	5	23. Student behavior is disruptive.
1	2	3	4	5	24. There are many learning stations and centers in the classroom.
1	2	3	4	5	25. Different instructional materials are used by each student during an instructional period.
					Student Responses
1	2	3	4	5	26. Students move through the subject matter at different rates.
1	2	3	4	5	27. Student conferences are held to plan future instructional activities.
1	2	3	4	5	28. Students schedule nearly all their activities for the day.
1	2	3	4	5	29. Students feel free to voice their feelings to the teacher(s).
1	2	3	4	5	30. Students operate the available equipment themselves.
1	2	3	4	5	31. Students score their own work with spot checks by an adult.
1	2	3	4	5	32. Students are allowed to leave class only as a group that is supervised by an adult.
1	2	3	4	5	33. Students may change their seats whenever they wish.
1	2	3	4	5	34. Students are free to rearrange the room furniture.
1	2	3	4	5	35. Each student has an individual contract, work agreement or prescription sheet.
1	2	3	4	5	36. Students may go to the school library at any time.
1	2	3	4	5	37. Students have latitude in the selection of tasks to satisfy required work.

Barely	Somewhat	Moderately	Considerably	Completely	
1	2	3	4	5	38. Students decide with whom they will work or whether they will work independently.
1	2	3	4	5	39. Students can tell what they will study next in a given subject.
1	2	3	4	5	40. Students maintain, or have access to, records of their own progress.
1	2	3	4	5	41. The results of tests are interpreted to students individually.
1	2	3	4	5	42. Teachers discuss non-academic concerns with students.
1	2	3	4	5	43. Students are tested at times predetermined by the teacher.
1	2	3	4	5	44. Students are asked about ideas for things to do in class.
1	2	3	4	5	45. Student achievement is assessed only when each student indicates he/she is ready.
1	2	3	4	5	46. Within confines of contracts or other similar assignments, children schedule many of their own activities.

Teacher Responses

1	2	3	4	5	47. Most students take the same instructional tests (does not include standardized tests).
1	2	3	4	5	48. Different objectives are identified for individual students.
1	2	3	4	5	49. Objectives for each student are reviewed and revised regularly.
1	2	3	4	5	50. For students with similar needs, several alternative activities are available.
1	2	3	4	5	51. The decision to assign new work is based upon progress of the class as a whole.
1	2	3	4	5	52. There are different passing "grades" for different students.
1	2	3	4	5	53. There are additional personal contacts with children's parents aside from those scheduled by the school.
1	2	3	4	5	54. Teacher's personal records include detailed information on student interests, needs, background, etc.
1	2	3	4	5	55. Samples of each student's work are kept on file.
1	2	3	4	5	56. There are short-term written objectives for each student.

Evaluation of Curriculum Materials

N.C.S.S. SOCIAL STUDIES CURRICULUM GUIDE

Evaluation Checklist

RATING			*SPECIFIC GUIDELINES*
Strongly	*Moderately*	*Hardly At All*	
			1.1 Are students involved in the formulation of goals, the selection of activities, and the assessment of curriculum outcomes? S T
			1.2 Do the school and its teachers make steady effort, through regularized channels and practices, to identify areas of concern to students? S T
			1.3 Do students have choices within programs? S T
			1.4 Do all students have ample opportunity for social studies education at all grade levels? R T
			2.1 Does the program focus on the social world as it actually is? R T C
			2.2 Does the program emphasize pervasive and enduring social issues? R T
			2.3 Does the program include analysis and attempts to formulate potential resolutions of present and controversial problems such as racism and war? R T
			2.4 Does the program provide intensive and recurrent study of cultural, racial, religious, and ethnic groups? R T C
			2.5 Does the program offer opportunities to meet and work with members of racial and ethnic groups other than their own? R T C
			2.6 Does the program build upon the realities of the immediate school community? R T C
			2.7 Is participation both in school and out considered a part of the program? R S C
			3.1 Does the program emphasize valid concepts, principles, and theories in the social sciences? R T
			3.2 Does the program develop proficiency in methods of inquiry in the social sciences and in techniques for processing social data? R T O
			3.3 Does the program develop students' ability to distinguish among empirical, logical, definitional, and normative propositions and problems? R T O
			3.4 Does the program draw upon all of the social sciences and the history of the United States and the Western and non-Western worlds? R T
			3.5 Does the program draw from what is appropriate in other related fields such as psychology, law, communications, and the humanities? R T
			3.6 Does the program represent some balance between the immediate social environment of students and the larger social world? R T
			3.7 Does the program include the study of man's achievements and those policies contrary to present national goals? R T

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Evaluation Checklist

RATING			*SPECIFIC GUIDELINES*
Strongly	*Moderately*	*Hardly At All*	
			3.8 Does the program include a careful selection of that knowledge of most worth? R T
			4.1 Are objectives carefully selected and formulated? R T
			4.2 Are knowledge, abilities, valuing, and social participation all represented in the objectives of the program? R T
			4.3 Are general statements of goals translated into specific objectives conceived in terms of behavior and content? R T
			4.4 Are classroom instruction and materials based upon clearly stated objectives? R T O
			4.5 Does classroom instruction enable students to see their goals clearly in brief instructional sequences and lengthy units of study? T S
			4.6 Are objectives reconsidered and revised periodically? R T
			5.1 Do students have a wide and rich range of learning activities appropriate to the objectives of their program? R T
			5.2 Do activities include formulating hypotheses and testing them by gathering and analyzing data? R T O
			5.3 Do activities include the processes of making decisions about socio-civic affairs? R T O
			5.4 Do activities involve students in their communities? S T C
			5.5 Are learning activities sufficiently varied and flexible? T S
			5.6 Do students perceive their teachers as fellow inquirers? S
			5.7 Are activities carried on in a climate which supports students' self-respect and opens opportunities to all? S T O
			6.1 Does the program have a wealth of appropriate instructional resources? R T O
			6.2 Do printed materials accommodate a wide range of reading abilities and interests, learning activities, and sources? R O
			6.3 Is a variety of media available for learning through many senses? R O
			6.4 Do classrooms draw upon the contributions of many kinds of resource persons and organizations representing many points of view? T O C
			6.5 Do activities use the school and community as a learning laboratory? T O C
			6.6 Does the program have available many kinds of work space? R O

Evaluation Checklist

RATING			*SPECIFIC GUIDELINES*
Strongly	*Moderately*	*Hardly At All*	
			7.1 Does the program help students organize their experiences? R O
			7.2 Are learning experiences organized in such fashion that students learn how to continue to learn? R O
			7.3 Does the program enable students to relate their experiences in social studies to other areas of experience? T S O
			7.4 Does the formal pattern of the program offer choice and flexibility? R S
			8.1 Is evaluation based primarily on the school's own statements of objectives? R
			8.2 Does assessment include progress in knowledge, abilities, valuing, and participation? R
			8.3 Does evaluation data come from many sources, inside and outside the classroom? R
			8.4 Are evaluation procedures regular, comprehensive, and continuous? R
			8.5 Are evaluation data used for planning curricular improvement? R T
			8.6 Do evaluation data offer students help in the course of learning? T S
			8.7 Are both students and teachers involved in the process of evaluation? S T
			8.8 Is regular re-examination of basic curricular goals an integral part of the evaluation? R T
			9.1 Does the school provide appropriate materials, time, and facilities for social studies education? R T C
			9.2 Do teachers try out and adapt for their own students promising innovations? R T
			9.3 Are the basic purposes of social studies education as clearly related to the needs of the immediate community as to those of society at large? R C
			9.4 Do teachers participate regularly in active social studies curriculum committees with both decision-making and advisory responsibilities? T
			9.5 Do teachers participate regularly in activities which foster their competence in social studies education? R T
			9.6 Do teachers have social studies consultants available for help? R T
			9.7 Can teachers and schools rely upon a district-wide policy statement on academic freedom and professional responsibility? R T C

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Jaime Mejia (S), Consul (April 9, 1975)

COSTA RICA

Consulate General, 6th Floor, 101 E. Ontario St. (60611), 664-4088. 10 a.m. to 2 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, Ohio, South Dakota, Wisconsin.

Jorge A. Sabater (M), Consul General (November 1, 1973), 3200 N. Lake Shore Dr. (60657), 871-4215

DENMARK

Consulate General, Suite 2005, 360 N. Michigan Ave. (60601), 329-9644. 10 a.m. to 12 noon and 2 p.m. to 4 p.m.; Saturdays, by appointment only.

Jurisdiction: Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, Ohio, South Dakota, Wisconsin.

Bengt G. Johns (M) Consul General (January 23, 1975), 3240 N. Lake Shore Dr. (60657), Graceland 2-7636

DOMINICAN REPUBLIC

Consulate General, 1026 N. Fortuna Ave., Park Ridge, IL (60068), 825-8058. 9 a.m. to 12:30 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, Ohio, South Dakota, Wisconsin.

Ramon Garcia-Camilo (M), Consul General (October 18, 1974), 825-8058

ECUADOR

Consulate General, 612 N. Michigan Ave. (60611), 642-8579. 10 a.m. to 4 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Luis Benigno Gallegos-Chiriboga (M), Consul (June 2, 1975), Apt. 1802, 116 E. Superior St. (60611), 649-0504

EL SALVADOR

Consulate, Suite 1170, 35 E. Wacker Dr. (60601), Dearborn 2-6331. 10 a.m. to 4 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

David Maxwell Weil (M), Consul (1947), 1540 N. Lake Shore Dr. (60610), Superior 7-8665

FINLAND

Consulate, Suite 2150, 69 W. Washington St. (60602), 726-1103. 10 a.m. to 4 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kentucky, Wisconsin.

Frederick C. Niemi (M), Consul (February 18, 1975), 661 Hill Rd., Winnetka, IL (60093), 441-6320

Finnish Trade Commissioner, Suite 3205, One IBM Plz. (60611), 467-6767. 9 a.m. to 5 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: Midwestern States.

Timo Sundholm (M), Trade Commissioner, 531 Linden Ave., Wilmette, IL (60091), 251-2438

FRANCE

Consulate General, Suite 2806, 919 N. Michigan Ave. (60611), 787-5359-60-61-85. 9 a.m. to 4:30 p.m.; open to the public 9 a.m. to 1 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kentucky, Minnesota, Missouri, Wisconsin, North Dakota, South Dakota, Kansas, Nebraska.

***Philippe Olivier** (M), Minister Plenipotentiary, Consul General (December 21, 1970), 1420 N. Lake Shore Dr. (60610), 943-3207

Trade Expansion Service, 360 N. Michigan Ave. (60601), 263-6067. 9 a.m. to 5 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: Illinois, Michigan, Wisconsin, Minnesota, North Dakota,South Dakota, Indiana, Iowa, Nebraska, West Virginia, Kentucky, Missouri, Kansas, Ohio.

Olivier Piot (M), Consul, Commercial Counselor, 3240 N. Lake Shore Dr. (60657), 248-9519

French Industrial Development Agency, Suite 403, 360 N. Michigan Ave. (60601), 263-3962. 8:30 a.m. to 5:30 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jean-Francois Labbe (S), Assistant Director, 2020 Lincoln Park West (60614), 871-4752

Cultural Services, Suite 2802, 919 N. Michigan Ave. (60611), 664-3525. 9 a.m. to 4:30 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: Illinois, Minnesota, Iowa, Wisconsin, Indiana, Missouri, Michigan, Kentucky, Ohio, Kansas, Nebraska, North Dakota, South Dakota.

Jean Beaulieu (M), Consul, Cultural Attache, Apt. 5-A, 40 E. Cedar St. (60611), 943-2449

GERMANY, FEDERAL REPUBLIC OF

Consulate General, 104 S. Michigan Ave. (60603), 263-0850. 9 a.m. to 1 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: Illinois, Iowa, Kansas, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, South Dakota, Wisconsin.

Hans Rolf Kiderien (M), Consul General (January 5, 1971), 1420 N. Lake Shore Dr. (60610), 944-1895

GREAT BRITAIN

Consulate General, Suite 1330, 33 N. Dearborn St. (60602), 346-1810-11-12. 9 a.m. to 5 p.m. (Visas 9:30 a.m. to 12:30 p.m. and 1:30 p.m. to 3:30 p.m.); Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, Ohio, South Dakota, West Virginia, Wisconsin, and the following counties of Pennsylvania (Allegheny, Armstrong, Beaver, Butler, Crawford, Erie, Fayette, Forest Green, Indiana, Jefferson, Lawrence, Mercer, Venango, Warren, Washington, Westmoreland).

John M. Heath (M), Consul General (February 14, 1975), 1260 N. Astor St. (60610), 642-6333

GREECE

Consulate General, 168 N. Michigan Ave. (60601), 372-5356-8. 10 a.m. to 2 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, Ohio, Oklahoma, South Dakota, Tennessee, Wisconsin.

Nicolas Macridis (M), Consul General (May 3, 1972), Apt. 15A, 3240 N. Lake Shore Dr. (60657), 525-5595

GUATEMALA

Consulate, 333 N. Michigan Ave. (60601), 782-8419. 10 a.m. to 3 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: Illinois, North Dakota, South Dakota, Minnesota, Wisconsin, Michigan, Ohio, Indiana, Iowa.

Alberto Gaitan H. (M), Consul General (June 10, 1975), 30 E. Division St. (60610)

GUYANA

Consulate, 2402 Broadway, East Chicago, IN (46312), (219) 398-3720; Chicago direct line, 221-2393. 1 p.m. to 6 p.m.; Wednesdays, and Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: Illinois, Indiana, Wisconsin.

E. L. C. Broomes (M), Consul (December 12, 1973), 2402 Broadway, East Chicago, IN (46312), (219) 398-3720; Chicago direct line, 221-2393

HAITI

Consulate General and Tourist Office, Suite 901, 11 S. LaSalle St. (60603), 332-0673-4. 9 a.m. to 3 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: Midwestern States.

Serge Adam (M), Consul General (December 3, 1971), in charge of Tourist Activities, 7327 S. Chappel (60649), 493-2116

HONDURAS

Consulate General, 3103 E. 79th St. (60649), 734-8386. 8 a.m. to 1 p.m. by appointment only; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: Illinois, Indiana, Ohio, Michigan, Minnesota, Wisconsin, Iowa, Missouri.

Norma Spilsbury de Solano (M), Consul General (May 31, 1973), 3103 E. 79th St. (60649), 374-4730

ICELAND

Consulate, Suite 706, 100 W. Monroe St. (60603), 782-6872. 10 a.m. to 4 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: Illinois

P. Sveinbjorn Johnson (M), Consul (February 17, 1970), 936 Sheridan Rd., Evanston, IL (60202), 869-8269

INDIA

Vice Consulate, 201 N. Michigan Ave. (60601), 236-7869. 9 a.m. to 5 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: Illinois.

A. C. Bagchi (M), Vice Consul (April 4, 1975), 3950 N. Lake Shore Dr. (60613), 348-4173

IRAN

Consulate General, John Hancock Center, Suite 4030, 875 N. Michigan Ave. (60611), 642-3376/77/78. 9:15 a.m. to 1 p.m. and 2 p.m. to 4 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, South Dakota, Wisconsin.

Majeed Mehran (M), Consul General (November 29, 1972), Apt. 5-E, 199 E. Lake Shore Dr. (60611), 944-5211

IRELAND

Consulate General, Suite 911, 400 N. Michigan Ave. (60611), Delaware 7-1868. 10 a.m. to 12 noon and 2 p.m. to 4 p.m.; Saturdays, closed. **Tourist Office,** 224 N. Michigan Ave. (60601). 726-9356. 9 a.m. to 5 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: Alabama, Arkansas, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Louisiana, Michigan, Minnesota, Mississippi, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, Ohio, Oklahoma, South Dakota, Tennessee, Wisconsin and (except Tourist Office) Texas.

Thomas D. Lyons (M), Consul General (February 5, 1975), 1550 N. Lake Shore Dr. (60610), 751-0120

Irish Industrial Development Authority, Suite 2420, 1 E. Wacker Dr. (60601), 644-7474. 9 a.m. to 5 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: Arkansas, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Louisiana, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, North Dakota, Ohio, Oklahoma, South Dakota, Nebraska, Wisconsin.

Sean Ward (M), Director Midwest, USA, IDA Ireland

ISRAEL

Consulate General, Suite 1308, 111 E. Wacker Dr. (60601), 644-4140. 9 a.m. to 12:30 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: North Dakota, South Dakota, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, Ohio, Wisconsin.

Ehud Avriel (M), Consul General (January 5, 1975)

Government of Israel Investment and Export Authority Office, Suite 1308, 111 E. Wacker Dr. (60601), 644-4140-49-50. 9 a.m. to 5 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: North Dakota, South Dakota, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, Ohio, Wisconsin.

Israel Elran (M), Consul, Economic Affairs, Director, Midwest Office.

ITALY

Consulate General, 625 N. Michigan Ave. (60611), 943-0703. 9:30 a.m. to 12:30 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: Illinois, Wisconsin, Minnesota, Iowa, South Dakota, North Dakota, Colorado, Nebraska, Wyoming.

Alvaro V. Beltrani (M), Consul General (July 29, 1974), 333 E. Ontario St. (60611)

Office of the Trade Commissioner, 625 N. Michigan Ave. (60611), 787-3772. 9 a.m. to 5 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: Illinois, Iowa, Kansas, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, South Dakota, Wisconsin, Indiana, Michigan, Kentucky.

Angelo Bazzano (M), Italian Trade Commissioner, Apt. 8-D, 1 E. Schiller St. (60610), 664-0258

JAMAICA

Consulate, Suite 1027, 188 W. Randolph St. (60601), 782-2750. 10:30 a.m. to 6 p.m.; Saturdays, 10 a.m. to 2 p.m.

Jurisdiction: Illinois.

Dolphy T. McLaughlin (M), Consul (June 16, 1969), 1031 E. Hyde Park Blvd. (60615), 667-0661

JAPAN

Consulate General, Suite 200, 625 N. Michigan Ave. (60611), 321-9000. 9 a.m. to 12 noon and 2 p.m. to 5 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, Wisconsin, Minnesota, Iowa, Missouri, North Dakota, South Dakota, Nebraska, Kansas, Ohio.

Hiroji Yamaguchi (M), Consul General (July 28, 1974), 1201 Sheridan Rd., Evanston, IL (60202), 869-3111

JORDAN

Consulate, 18 S. Michigan Ave. (60603), 368-0524. 9 a.m. to 5 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: Illinois.

Hasan M. Abdallah (M), Consul (November 30, 1964)

KOREA

Consulate General, Suite 600, 500 N. Michigan Ave. (60611), 822-9485. 9 a.m. to 12 noon and 1:30 p.m. to 5 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, South Dakota, Ohio, Wisconsin.

Moon Yong Rhie (M), Consul General (July 3, 1974), 3240 N. Lake Shore Dr. (60657), 281-4854

LEBANON

Consulate, 1125 S. Brainard Ave., LaGrange, IL (60525), 354-8880. By appointment only. 10 a.m. to 4 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: Illinois.

Nicholas S. Salamie (M), Consul (September 14, 1954), 1125 S. Brainard Ave., LaGrange, IL (60625), 354-8930

LIBERIA

Consulate, 423 E. 60th St. (60637), Midway 3-8635. 11 a.m. to 1 p.m. and 2 p.m. to 4 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: Illinois and adjacent states.

William H. Jones (M), Consul General (October 4, 1951), 423 E. 60th St. (60637), Midway 3-8635

LITHUANIA

Consulate General, 6147 S. Artesian Ave. (60629), Republic 7-8334. 9 a.m. to 3 p.m., except Wednesdays and Saturdays.

Jurisdiction: Alabama, Arizona, Arkansas, California, Colorado, Iowa, Illinois, Indiana, Kansas, Kentucky, Louisiana, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Montana, Nebraska, Nevada, New Mexico, North Dakota, Ohio, Oklahoma, Oregon, South Dakota, Tennessee, Texas, Utah, Washington, Wisconsin, Wyoming, Alaska, Hawaii.

Mrs. Josephine J. Dauzvardis (W), Consul General (November 12, 1971), 6147 S. Artesian Ave. (60629), Republic 7-8334

LUXEMBOURG

Consulate, Suite 1145, 111 W. Washington St. (60602), Randolph 6-0355. 9:30 a.m. to 3:45 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: Illinois, Michigan, Ohio, Wisconsin, Indiana, Iowa.

Nicholas Colling (M), Consul (April 8, 19968), 6037 N. Damen (60659), Rogers Park 4-9668

THE MALAGASY REPUBLIC

Consulate, Suite 560, 410 N. Michigan Ave. (60611), 337-2710-11. 9 a.m. to 5 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: Illinois.

Martin Philipsborn (M), Consul (April 26, 1968), 1130 N. Lake Shore Dr. (60611), 337-5171

MEXICO

Consulate General, 201 N. Wells St. (60606), 782-5888. 9 a.m. to 2 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Minnesota, North Dakota, South Dakota, Wisconsin.

Francisco Acevedo-Morga (M), Consul General (August 22, 1974), Apt. 8H, 3180 N. Lake Shore Dr. (60657), 281-8093

Commercial Counselor Office, [Mexican Institute for Foreign Trade], Suite 3737, John Hancock Center, 875 N. Michigan Ave. (60611), 266-7006-07-08. 9 a.m. to 5 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Michigan, Minnesota, Nebraska, North Dakota, South Dakota, Ohio, Wisconsin, Missouri and Kansas.

Raul G. Stern F. (M), Commercial Counselor, Apt. 1410, 3200 N. Lake Shore Dr. (60657), 281-8879

MONACO

Consulate General, Suite 209, 740 Rush St. (60611), Michigan 2-1242. 10:30 a.m. to 4:30 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, Ohio, South Dakota, Wisconsin, Colorado.

Robert L. Steiner (M), Consul, (Acting Consul General) (September 22, 1967), 990 N. Lake Shore Dr. (60611), 664-6295

NEPAL

Consulate General, 37 S. LaSalle St. (60603), 346-9090. 9 a.m. to 5 p.m.; Saturdays, by appointment only.

Van C. Argiris (M), Consul General (July 11, 1974), 1300 N. Lake Shore Dr. (60610), 642-9670

THE NETHERLANDS

Consulate General, Suite 642, 410 N. Michigan Ave. (60611), 644-6350. 9:30 a.m. to 1 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, Ohio, South Dakota, Tennessee, Wisconsin.

Johannes Tjaardstra (M), Consul General (August 26, 1975), 3240 N. Lake Shore Dr. (60657), 348-5230

NICARAGUA

Consulate General, Suite 1633, 55 E. Washington St. (60602), Dearborn 2-2958. 2 p.m. to 4 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Adolfo Roman (W), Consul (April 8, 1949), Apt. 18B, 5740 N. Sheridan Rd. (60660)

NORWAY

Consulate General, Suite 1908, 360 N. Michigan Ave. (60601), State 2-7750. 9 a.m. to 4 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: Arkansas, Illinois, Indiana, Kansas, Kentucky, Michigan, Missouri, Ohio, Oklahoma, Tennessee, Wisconsin.

B. M. Riise (M), Consul General (July 14, 1975), 1125 Michigan Ave., Wilmette, IL (60091), 256-4244

PANAMA

Consulate General, 1036 N. Dearborn Pkwy. (60610), Superior 7-1555. 9:30 a.m. to 12 noon; Saturdays, by appointment.

Jurisdiction: Illinois, Michigan, Ohio, Wisconsin, North Dakota, South Dakota, Minnesota, Missouri, Iowa, Indiana, Kansas, Nebraska.

Mrs. Angela Munoz de Lew (M), Consul General (October 14, 1957), also in charge of commercial and tourist activities, Lansing Apts., 1036 N. Dearborn Pkwy. (60610), Whitehall 4-4080

PARAGUAY

Consulate, 27 E. Monroe St. (60603), Andover 3-7243. 2:30 p.m. to 4 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Fritz A. Adler (M), Consul (April 2, 1954), 423 N. Ridgeway Ave., Oak Park, IL (60302), Village 8-0379

PERU

Consulate General, Suite 1509, 28 E. Jackson Blvd. (60604), 939-0647. 10 a.m. to 2 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: Illinois, Iowa, Minnesota, North Dakota, South Dakota, Nebraska, Wisconsin, Indiana, Missouri, (Kansas City, St. Louis, Phelps, Rolla), Minneapolis.

Hugo De Zela H. (M), Consul General

PHILIPPINES

Consulate General, Suite 408, 6 N. Michigan Ave. (60602), 332-6458-9. 8:30 a.m. to 4:30 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, South Dakota, Ohio, Wisconsin.

Rodolfo S. Sanchez (M), Consul General (August 1, 1975), 3330 Greenwood, Skokie, IL (60076), 676-3467

Office of Foreign Trade Promotion:

Domingo T. Reyes (M), Foreign Trade Representative, 4712 N. Paulina (60640), 271-9109

Office of Revenue Representative:

Jaime S. Quintans (M), Revenue Representative, 4550 N. Clarendon Ave. (60640), 878-2116

Office of Information Representative:

Sebastian S. Catarroja (M), Information Representative, 525 W. Deming Place (60614), 953-5378

POLAND

Consulate General, 1530 N. Lake Shore Dr. (60610), 337-8166. 9 a.m. to 12:30 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: Alaska, Arizona, Arkansas, California, Colorado, Hawaii, Idaho, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Louisiana, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Montana, Nebraska, Nevada, New Mexico, North Dakota, Oklahoma, Oregon, South Dakota, Texas, Utah, Washington, Wisconsin, Wyoming.

Wojciech Jaskot (M), Minister Plenipotentiary, Consul General (January 12, 1976)

Office of the Commercial Consul, Suite 3906B, 333 E. Ontario St. (60611), 642-4102. 9 a.m. to 4 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Ireneusz Kubiczek (M), Commercial Consul, Apt. 3902-B, 333 E. Ontario St. (60611), 266-9445

Polish Ocean Lines, 111 E. Wacker Dr. (60601), 644-6755.

Jerry Ratajczak (M), Representative, Apt. 30C, 1550 N. Lake Shore Dr. (60610), 642-2330

Polish National Tourist Office — Information Center, 333 N. Michigan Ave. (60601), 236-9013.

Jan Orszulak (M), Midwest Area Manager, Apt. 8A, 30 E. Division St. (60610), 751-0819

PORTUGAL

Consulate, 2540 S. Wabash Ave. (60616), 842-0625. 9 a.m. to 12 noon and 2 p.m. to 5 p.m.; Saturdays, by appointment only.

Jurisdiction: Illinois, Indiana, Ohio, Michigan, Wisconsin.

J. Leonard Herron (M), Consul (November 7, 1967), 5701 Sheridan Rd. (60660), 561-4596

SENEGAL

Consulate, Suite 4414, 135 S. LaSalle St. (60603), 236-8745. 9 a.m. to 5 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Thomas H. Miner (S), Consul (June 9, 1970), 1350 N. Lake Shore Dr. (60610), 944-2453

SPAIN

Consulate General, Suite 2106, 180 N. Michigan Ave. (60601), 782-4588-9. 9 a.m. to 2 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, Ohio, South Dakota, Wisconsin.

Rafael G. Ontiveros (M), Consul General (July, 1972), Apt. 15A, 3740 N. Lake Shore Dr. (60613), 348-4837

Commercial Office of Spain, Room 1028, 180 N. Michigan Ave. (60601), 782-7798-9. 9 a.m. to 5 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Carlos Espinosa de los Monteros (M), Commercial Consul, Head of the Commercial Office of Spain for the Midwest, Apt. 15B, 3260 N. Lake Shore Dr. (60657), 929-5905

Spanish National Tourist Office, 180 N. Michigan Ave. (60601), 641-1842. 9 a.m. to 5 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jaime Leal (M), Acting Director, 5100 N. Marine Dr. (60640), 275-4965

SRI LANKA (CEYLON)

Consulate, 11 S. LaSalle St. (60603), 641-3535. 9 a.m. to 4 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: Illinois.

George F. Sisier (S), Consul (February 14, 1968), 175 E. Delaware Pl. (60611), 787-7271

SWEDEN

Consulate General, Suite 2301, 333 N. Michigan Ave. (60601), 726-9868. 10 a.m. to 12 noon and 1 p.m. to 4 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: Arkansas, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Michigan, Missouri, Nebraska, Ohio, Oklahoma, Tennessee.

K. H. Andersson (W), Consul General (October 15, 1973), Apt. 7E, 199 E. Lake Shore Dr. (60611), 943-0788

Trade Commissioner's Office, Suite 2315, 333 N. Michigan Ave. (60601), 372-1680. 9 a.m. to 12 noon and 1 p.m. to 5 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: U.S.A.

Ulf Bennet (M), Trade Commissioner, 1806 Maplewood La., Glenview, IL (60025), 729-7716

SWITZERLAND

Consulate General, Suite 705, 307 N. Michigan Ave. (60601), 782-4346. 10 a.m. to 3 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: Colorado, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Nebraska, Kansas, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, North Dakota, Ohio, South Dakota, Wisconsin, Wyoming.

Rolf Born (M), Consul General (April 29, 1974), 209 E. Lake Shore Dr. (60611), 642-0690

THAILAND

Consulate General, Suite 1730, 111 E. Wacker Dr. (60601), 565-0405. 9 a.m. to 12 noon and 1:30 p.m. to 4:30 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: Illinois, Indiana, Wisconsin, Iowa, Missouri, Nebraska, Minnesota.

Laurin H. Healy (M), Consul General (February 19, 1964), 874 Hill Rd., Winnetka, IL (60093), Hillcrest 6-4517

TURKEY

Consulate General, Suite 1406-08, 360 N. Michigan Ave. (60601), 263-0644. 9:30 a.m. to 1 p.m. and 2 p.m. to 6 p.m.; applications during morning hours only; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: Arkansas, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Louisiana, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, Ohio, Oklahoma, South Dakota, Texas, Wisconsin.

Erol H. Celasun (M), Consul General (August 31, 1972)

URUGUAY

Consulate, 33 N. Dearborn St. (60602), Central 6-3366. 9 a.m. to 2 p.m.; Saturdays, by appointment.

Jurisdiction: Illinois, Ohio, Michigan, Indiana, Wisconsin, Minnesota, Missouri, Iowa.

Felix Stungevicius (S), Consul (September 26, 1950), Apt. 8807, John Hancock Center, 175 E. Delaware (60611), Central 6-3366

VENEZUELA

Consulate General, Suite 2052, 20 N. Wacker Dr. (60606), Central 6-9655-58-59. 9 a.m. to 1 p.m. and 1:30 p.m. to 3 p.m. Open to public: 9 a.m. to 1 p.m.; for visas only: 9 a.m. to 12 noon; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: Illinois, Michigan, Indiana, Wisconsin, Minnesota, Nebraska, Iowa.

F. Ganteaume-Pantin (M), Consul General (February 16, 1973), 1710 Walnut St., Wilmette, IL (60091), 251-6532

YUGOSLAVIA

Consulate General, Suite 1600, 307 N. Michigan Ave. (60601), 332-0169. 10 a.m. to 2 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: Arkansas, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Louisiana, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, Oklahoma, South Dakota, Texas, Wisconsin.

Zivojin Lakic (M), Consul General (September 18, 1972), 5445 N. Sheridan Rd. (60640), 332-0170

ASSOCIATE MEMBER

Paul Chung (M), Former Consul General of Korea (1966-68), 30 N. Michigan Ave. (60602), 263-2016. Residence: Apt. 5006, 5415 N. Sheridan Rd. (60640), 334-6333

OTHER FOREIGN REPRESENTATION

ANDORRA

Andorra Bureau for Information and Tourism, 1923 W. Irving Park Rd. (60613), 472-7660. 9 a.m. to 5 p.m.; Wednesdays, 9 a.m. to 1 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: Illinois, Wisconsin.

Gilberto Garcia (M), Delegate to the United States, 6800 N. Knox Ave., Lincolnwood, IL (60646)

Miss Gloria U. Garcia, Secretary

ARAB STATES

League of Arab States, Arab Information Center, 18 S. Michigan Ave. (60603), 368-0523-4. 9 a.m. to 1 p.m. and 2 p.m. to 5 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: Midwest.

Hassan M. Abdallah (M), Director

Midamerica-Arab Chamber of Commerce, Inc., Suite 2050, 135 S. LaSalle St. (60603), 782-4654, 9 a.m. to 5 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Owais R. Succarl (M), Administrative Director

AUSTRIA

Austrian National Tourist Office, Suite 5130, 200 E. Randolph Dr. (60601), 861-0100. 9 a.m. to 5 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, South Dakota, Wisconsin.

Wilheim A. Brauner (M), Director, 3200 N. Lake Shore Dr. (60657), 549-4591

BAHAMAS

Bahamas Tourist Office, Suite 1816, 875 N. Michigan Ave. (60611), 787-8203. 9 a.m. to 5 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: Illinois, Wisconsin, Minnesota, Iowa, North Dakota, South Dakota; part of Indiana, Missouri, Michigan and Nebraska.

Adel Fahmy (M), Regional Manager, 500 Thames Pkwy., Park Ridge, IL (60068)

BELGIUM

The Belgian American Chamber of Commerce, Midwest Chapter, c/o Metron Steel Corporation, 12900 S. Metron Dr. (60633), 646-4000. 8:30 a.m. to 5 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: Midwest.

Andrew A. Athens, Chairman

CANADA

Government of Ontario, Canada, Suite 1306, 233 N. Michigan Ave. (60601), 565-0858. 8:30 a.m. to 4:30 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: Arkansas, Illinois, Indiana, Kansas City, Kansas, Louisiana, Western Michigan, Missouri, Oklahoma, Southern Wisconsin, Texas.

D. A. Bamford (M), Manager, Apt. 1629, 400 E. Randolph St. (60601), 565-0178

Quebec Government Office, 72 W. Adams St. (60603), 726-0681. 9 a.m. to 5 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: Midwestern States.

Reginald Bourgeois (M), Sr. Economic Counselor, 460 Castlewood Rd., Deerfield, IL (60015), 945-4955

CAYMAN ISLANDS

Cayman Islands Department of Tourism, Suite 204, Cherry Creek Office Building, 2711 W. 183rd St., Homewood, IL (60430), 957-9750. 9 a.m. to 5 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Ohio and Wisconsin.

Miss Georgene E. Somin, Representative

CHILE

Chilean Tourist Office, Lan-Chile Airlines, Suite 1111, 30 N. Michigan Ave. (60602), 332-5885. 9 a.m. to 5 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: Illinois, Iowa, Kansas, Minnesota, Nebraska, North Dakota, South Dakota, Wisconsin, Indiana, Michigan and Missouri.

Raul E. Ona (M), Dist. Mgr., 5648 N. Bernard (60659), 267-0428

CHINA

China External Trade Development Council, 9302 N. Tripp, Skokie, IL (60076), 679-1632.

Jurisdiction: Midwestern States.

John Wu (M), Representative, 9302 N. Tripp, Skokie, IL (60076), 679-1632

FINLAND

The Finnish American Chamber of Commerce of the Midwest, Suite 3205, One IBM Plz. (60611), 467-6767. 9 a.m. to 5 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: Midwestern States.

Timo Sundholm (M), Executive Secretary, 531 Linden Ave., Wilmette, IL (60091), 251-2438

FRANCE

French Government Tourist Office, Suite 1702, 111 N. Wabash Ave. (60602), 726-6661. 9 a.m. to 5 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Michigan, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, Ohio, South Dakota, Wisconsin.

Ms. Carol A. Abrioux (S), Director for the Midwest, 1717 N. Chilly Ct. (60614), 642-7427

GERMANY, FEDERAL REPUBLIC OF

German American Chamber of Commerce of Chicago, Suite 604, 77 E. Monroe St. (60603), 782-8557. 9 a.m. to 5 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: Illinois, Wisconsin, Minnesota, North Dakota, South Dakota, Nebraska, Kansas, Iowa, Missouri, Michigan, Indiana, Kentucky, Ohio.

Niels G. Friedrichs (M), Managing Director, 515 Linden Ave., Wilmette, IL (60091), 251-1442

German National Tourist Office, Suite 306, 104 S. Michigan Ave. (60603), 263-2958. 9 a.m. to 5 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: Alabama, Arkansas, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Louisiana, Michigan, Minnesota, Mississippi, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, Ohio, Oklahoma, South Dakota, Tennessee, Texas, Wisconsin.

Hans J. Baumann (M), Director, 2800 N. Lake Shore Dr. (60657), 477-1993

GREAT BRITAIN

British Tourist Authority, John Hancock Center, Suite 2450, 875 N. Michigan Ave. (60611), 787-0490. 9 a.m. to 5 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, Ohio, South Dakota, Wisconsin.

M. G. Montgomery (S), Mgr., Midwestern States, 40 E. Oak St. (60611), 642-1526

HONG KONG

Hong Kong Tourist Association, 333 N. Michigan Ave. (60601), 782-3872. 9 a.m. to 5:30 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, Ohio, South Dakota, Wisconsin.

John E. Sullivan (M), Midwest Representative, 272 Kosan Cir., Streamwood, IL (60103), 837-9241

Hong Kong Trade Development Council, Suite 1511, 333 N. Michigan Ave. (60601), 726-4515-6. 9 a.m. to 5 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Alan K. F. Wong (M), Chicago Representative, Apt. 21A, 420 W. Belmont Ave. (60657)

INDIA

Government of India Tourist Office, 201 N. Michigan Ave. (60601), 236-6899, 236-7869-70. 9 a.m. to 5 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: Illinois, Michigan, Indiana, Ohio, Wisconsin, Missouri, Iowa, Nebraska, North Dakota, South Dakota, Kansas, Minnesota.

A. C. Bagchi (M), Manager, 3950 N. Lake Shore Dr. (60613), 348-4173

Engineering Export Promotion Council of India, Suite 2014, 333 N. Michigan Ave. (60601), 236-2162. 9 a.m. to 5 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: Entire United States and Canada.

Diljit Singh Ahluwalia (M), Regional Manager, 330 Diversey Pkwy. (60657), 248-5108

ISRAEL

American-Israel Chamber of Commerce & Industry, Inc., 180 N. Michigan Ave. (60601), 641-2937. 9 a.m. to 5 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: Middle West States.

Ms. Roberts Lipman (M), Executive Director

Israel Government Tourist Office, 5 S. Wabash Ave. (60603), 782-4306. Mon. through Thurs. 9

a.m. to 5 p.m.; Fri. 9 a.m. to 4 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, Ohio, South Dakota, Wisconsin.

Rafael Daon (M), Director, Midwestern States

ITALY

Italian Chamber of Commerce of Chicago, 327 S. LaSalle St. (60604), Harrison 7-3014. 9 a.m. to 5 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: Illinois.

Leonora LiPuma Turner (M), Executive Secretary

Italian Government Travel Office, E.N.I.T., 500 N. Michigan Ave. (60611), 644-0990-1. 9 a.m. to 5 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Michigan, Minnesota, Montana, Missouri, Nebraska, Ohio, North Dakota, South Dakota, Wisconsin, Wyoming.

Enrico S. Maggi (M), Travel Commissioner

JAMAICA

Jamaica Tourist Board, Suite 1210, 36 S. Wabash Ave. (60603), 346-1546. 9 a.m. to 5 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: Illinois, Iowa, Kansas, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, South Dakota, Wisconsin.

John McCaul (M), Regional Sales Manager

JAPAN

Japan Trade Center [Japan External Trade Organization], Suite 1100, 232 N. Michigan Ave. (60601), Randolph 6-4390. 9 a.m. to 5 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: North Dakota, South Dakota, Nebraska, Kansas, Minnesota, Iowa, Missouri, Michigan, Wisconsin, Illinois, Indiana, Ohio.

Masahiro Soejima (M), Executive Director, 1570 Asbury Ave., Winnetka, IL (60093), 446-9465

Japanese Chamber of Commerce and Industry of Chicago, Rm. 404, 230 N. Michigan Ave. (60601), 332-6199. 9 a.m. to 5 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: Midwestern States.

Shohei Hara (M), President, 175 E. Delaware Pl. (60611), 787-8119

Osaka Municipal Government, Chicago Office, c/o Japan Trade Center, 232 N. Michigan Ave., (60601), RA 6-4390. 9 a.m. to 5 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: United States.

Eiichi Kajikawa (M), Director, Apt. 5-H, 6033 N. Sheridan Rd. (60660), 561-7540

Japan National Tourist Organization, First Floor, 333 N. Michigan Ave. (60601), 332-3975. 9:30 a.m. to 5 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: North Dakota, South Dakota, Nebraska, Kansas, Minnesota, Iowa, Missouri, Kentucky, Wisconsin, Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, Ohio.

Norimasa Ajiro (M), Director, 2762 Eastwood, Evanston, IL (60201), 866-7714

Japan Auto Parts Industries Association, 230 N. Michigan Ave. (60601), 346-1961.

Jurisdiction: USA and Canada.

Masahiro Soejima (M), Director of U.S. Operations, 1570 Asbury Ave., Winnetka, IL (60093), 446-9465

Japan Machine Tool Trade Association, 3601 W. Devon Ave. (60659), 583-2880. 9 a.m. to 5 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: All States, Canada and Mexico.

Suguru Murakami (M), Manager, 1711 W. Jarvis (60626), 973-7098

Japan Machinery Parts and Components Office, Suite 620, 230 N. Michigan Ave. (60601), 263-0991. 9 a.m. to 5 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: U.S.

Tadao Tamura (M), Executive Director, 4250 N. Marine Dr. (60613)

KOREA

Korea Trade Center [Korea Trade Promotion Corporation], Suite 519, 111 E. Wacker Dr. (60601), 644-4323/24. 9 a.m. to 5 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: North Dakota, South Dakota, Minnesota, Wisconsin, Iowa, Illinois, Michigan, Missouri, Indiana, Ohio.

Jong Han Park (M), Director, 1516 Plymouth Place, Glenview, IL (60025), 729-8229

Korean-American Midwest Association of Commerce and Industry [KAMACI], c/o Oak Industries, Inc., Crystal Lake, IL (60014), (815) 459-5000

Jurisdiction: Midwestern States.

Everitt A. Carter (M), President

MEXICO

Mexican American Chamber of Commerce and Industry of Chicago, 868 N. Wabash Ave. (60611), 266-8068. 9 a.m. to 5 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: Metropolitan Chicago Area.

Mexican Ministry of Tourism [Secretaria de Turismo], 625 N. Michigan Ave. (60611), 664-5779-80. 9 a.m. to 4:30 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, Oklahoma, South Dakota, Wisconsin.

Ruben Pimentel R. (M), Director, Apt. 2111, 535 N. Michigan Ave (60611), 329-0466

Mexican National Tourist Council, John Hancock Center, Suite 3615, 875 N. Michigan Ave. (60611), 649-0090. 9 a.m. to 5 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: North Dakota, South Dakota, Nebraska, Minnesota, Wisconsin, Iowa, Missouri, Illinois, Michigan, Indiana, Ohio, Kentucky.

Michael A. Lester (M), Regional Director, 925 S. Lombard Ave., Lombard, IL (60148)

MOROCCO

Morocco Government Tourist and Information Center, 6 S. Michigan Ave. (60603), 782-3413, 782-3227. 9 a.m. to 5 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: Alaska, Arizona, Arkansas, California, Colorado, Hawaii, Idaho, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Louisiana, Michigan, Minnesota, Montana, Missouri, Nebraska, New Mexico, Nevada, North Dakota, Oklahoma, Oregon, South Dakota, Utah, Texas, Washington, Wisconsin, Wyoming.

Baker Lemseffer (M), Director

THE NETHERLANDS

The Netherlands Chamber of Commerce in the U.S., Inc., Suite 638, 410 N. Michigan Ave. (60611), 943-1580. 9 a.m. to 5 p.m.; Saturdays closed.

Jurisdiction: Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, Ohio, South Dakota, Tennessee, Wisconsin.

Kersen J. De Jong (S), Manager, 1717 Crystal La., Mt. Prospect, IL (60056), 593-3261

NORWAY

Norwegian-American Chamber of Commerce — Midwest-Chicago Chapter, 360 N. Michigan Ave. (60601), 782-7750-51. 9 a.m. to 4 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: Arkansas, Illinois, Indiana, Kansas, Kentucky, Michigan, Missouri, Ohio, Oklahoma, Tennessee, Wisconsin.

Leonard W. Arentsen (M), President

PORTUGAL

Portuguese Government Trade Office, 236-6603-4. 9:30 a.m. to 5:30 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Eduardo M. Nery (M), Regional Director

ROMANIA

Foreign Trade Promotion Office/Chicago and Midwest, Suite 2010, 100 W. Monroe St. (60603), 782-4463-4. 9 a.m. to 5 p.m.; Saturdays, 9 a.m. to 1 p.m.

Jurisdiction: Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, Iowa, Minnesota, Missouri, Colorado, Nebraska, Oklahoma, Kansas, Wisconsin, Texas, North and South Dakota.

Teodor Munteanu (M), Economic Counselor, 1 E. Scott St. (60610)

SINGAPORE

Singapore Economic Development Board, Suite 810, 500 N. Michigan Ave. (60611), 644-3730. 9 a.m. to 5 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Y. C. Lee (M), Director

SPAIN

Spain-U.S. Chamber of Commerce of The Middle West, Inc., Suite 1028, 180 N. Michigan Ave. (60601), 782-7663. 9 a.m. to 5 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, South Dakota, Ohio, Wisconsin.

Joaquin R. Mata (M), Executive Secretary

SWITZERLAND

Swiss National Tourist Office, 104 S. Michigan Ave. (60603), 641-0050. 9 a.m. to 5 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Wisconsin.

U. Chris Zoobell (M), Representative

TAHITI

Tahiti Tourist Board, Suite 3032, 35 E. Wacker Dr. (60601), 641-3710. 9 a.m. to 5 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, Ohio, South Dakota, Wisconsin.

Peter B. Wendel (S), District Sales Manager

TURKS AND CAICOS ISLANDS

Turks and Caicos Tourist Board, 104 Colombia, Park Ridge, IL (60068), 696-0059. 9 a.m. to 5 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Jurisdiction: United States and Canada.

Mrs. M. J. Zilligen (M), Manager

YUGOSLAVIA

Yugoslav Chamber of Economy, Room 901, 307 N. Michigan Ave. (60601), 263-5248. 9 a.m. to 5 p.m.; Saturdays, closed.

Marko Peric (M), Chief of the Trade Promotion Office

ORGANIZATIONS AND AGENCIES CONCERNED WITH INTERNATIONAL TRADE AND RELATIONS

U.S. Department of Commerce
Chicago Regional Office
55 E. Monroe St.
Room 1406
Chicago, IL 60603
353-4450

U.S. Customs Service
District Director of Customs
610 S. Canal St.
Chicago, IL 60607
353-6100 (Office of District Director)

U.S. Immigration and Naturalization Service
District Director
219 S. Dearborn St.
Room 385
Chicago, IL 60604
353-7334

U.S. Passport Agency
Department of State
230 S. Dearborn St.
Room 331
Chicago, IL 60604
353-5426 & 353-7155

U.S. Postal Service
Mailing Requirements Section
433 W. Van Buren St.
Room 154
Chicago IL 60607
886-2677

U.S. Small Business Administration
Management Assistance Office
219 S. Dearborn St.
Room 437
Chicago, IL 60604
353-7723

Governor's Office
Springfield Office
207 State House
Springfield, IL 62706
217/782-6830

Chicago Office
160 N. LaSalle St., Room 2100
Chicago, IL 60601
793-2121

Department of Business and Economic Development
State of Illinois
International Marketing
205 W. Wacker Dr., Suite 1122
Chicago, IL 60606
793-2086

Department of Agriculture
State of Illinois
International Marketing Services
300 W. Washington St., Suite 710
Chicago, IL 60606
793-2180

MIATCO
Mid-America International Agri-Trade Council
International Marketing Services
300 W. Washington St., Suite 710
Chicago, IL 60606
368-4448

Mayor's Office
Director of Special Events
City Hall, Room 609
Chicago, IL 60602
744-3315

Chicago Regional Port District
General Manager
Butler Dr., Lake Calumet Harbor
Chicago, IL 60633
MI 6-4400

Seaport of Chicago
Port Director
Navy Pier
Chicago, IL 60611
744-3010

United States Great Lakes Shipping Association
332 S. Michigan Ave.
Chicago, IL 60604
427-7989

Illinois Manufacturer's Association
135 S. LaSalle St.
Chicago, IL 60603
641-6771

Illinois State Chamber of Commerce
20 N. Wacker Dr., Suite 1960
Chicago, IL 60606
372-7373

International Trade Club of Chicago
310 S. Michigan Ave.
Suite 1927
Chicago, IL 60604
341-9021

Chicago Council on Foreign Relations
116 S. Michigan Ave.
Chicago, IL 60603
RA 6-3860

Library of International Relations
660 N. Wabash Ave.
Chicago, IL 60611
SU 7-7928

All-Illinois Action Committee on International Trade
310 S. Michigan, Suite 1927
Chicago, IL 60604
341-9021

Pan American Council of Chicago
P.O. Box 1233
Chicago, IL 60690
744-4154

United Nations Association of The United States of America
110 S. Dearborn St., Suite 820
Chicago, IL 60603
726-1747

Mid-America Council for International Economic Policy
P.O. Box A3571
Chicago, IL 60690
346-6262

ETHNIC/RELIGIOUS/MINORITY STUDIES

Banks, James A., ed. *Teaching Ethnic Studies,* 43rd yearbook. Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1973.

Banks, James A., and Joyce, William W., eds. *Teaching Social Studies to Culturally Different Children.* Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., 1971.

Becker, James M., and Mehlinger, Howard D., eds. *International Dimensions in the Social Studies.* 38th yearbook. Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1968.

Council on Interracial Books for Children. *Feminists Look at the Books.* New York, NY., 1841 Broadway. (A survey of the 100 U.S. published books with Puerto Rican themes conducted by Puerto Rican feminists).

Gillespie, Margaret C., and Thompson, A. Gray. *Social Studies for Living in a Multi-Ethnic Society.* Columbus, OH: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co., 1973.

King, David C. *International Eduation for Spaceship Earth.* New York, NY: Foreign Policy Association, 1971.

Lerner, Gerda. *Black Women in White America.* New York, NY: Vintage (Random House), 1973.

Lerner, Gerda. *The Women in American History.* Menlo Park, CA: Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., 1971.

National Council for the Social Studies. *Curriculum Guidelines for Multiethnic Education.* Position statement. Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1976.

National Education Association. *A Child's Right to Equal Reading.* Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, (Exercises on the liberation of children's books from sexual stereotypes).

Rogers, V.R., and Weimland, T.P., eds. *Teaching Social Studies in the Urban Classroom.* Reading, MA: Addition-Wesley Publishing Co., 1972.

Sexism in Textbooks Committee of Women at Scott, Foresman and Co. *Guidelines for Improving the Image of Women in Textbooks.* Glenview, IL: Scott, Foresman and Co., 1974.

Skeel, Dorothy J. *Children of the Street: Teaching in the Inner-City.* Pacific Palisades, CA: Goodyear Publishing Co., Inc. 1971.

Smith, Louis M., and Geoffrey, William. *The Complexities of an Urban Classroom: An Analysis Toward a General Theory of Teaching.* New York, NY: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1968.

EVALUATION

Anderson, Howard R., and Linquist, E.F. *Selected Test Items in World History.* Bulletin #9, third edition. Revised by David K. Heenan. Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1960.

Anderson, Howard R., and Lindquist, E.F. *Selected Test Items in American History.* Bulletin #6, fifth edition. Revised by Harriet Stull. Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1964.

Banks, James A., with Clegg, Ambrose A., Jr. *Teaching Strategies for the Social Studies: Inquiry, Valuing and Decision-Making.* Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., 1973, (Especially Ch. 14).

Beatty, Walcott, ed. *Improving Educational Assessment: An Inventory of Measures of Affective Behavior.* Washington, D.C.: Association of Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1969.

Berg, Harry D. *Evaluation in Social Studies.* 35th yearbook. Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1965.

Bloom, Benjamin S., ed. *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives: Cognitive Domain.* New York, NY: David McKay Co., Inc., 1956.

Bloom, Benjamin S.; Hastings, J. Thomas; and Madaus, George F. *Handbook on Formative and Summative Evaluation of Student Learning.* New York, NY: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1971.

Brown, Frederick G. *Measurement and Evaluation.* Itasca, IL: Peacock Publishers, 1970.

Carin, Arthur A., and Sund, Robert B. *Developing Questioning Techniques: A Self-Concept Approach.* Columbus, OH: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co., 1971.

Center for Study of Evaluation and Research for Better Schools, Inc. *CSE-ECRS Preschool Kindergarten Test Evaluations.* University of California, Los Angeles, CA: Research for Better Schools, Inc., 1971.

Center for Study of Evaluation and Research for Better Schools, Inc. *The CSE Elementary School Test Evaluations.* University of California, Los Angeles, CA: Research for Better Schools, Inc., 1972.

Center for Study of Evaluation and Research for Better Schools, Inc. *CSE-RBS Test Evaluation: Tests of Higher Order Cognitive, Affective, and Interpersonal Skills.* University of California, Los Angeles, CA: Research for Better Schools, Inc., 1972.

Flanagan, John C.; Shanner, William H.; and Mager, Robert F. *Social Studies Behavioral Objectives: A Guide to Individualizing Learning.* Palo Alto, CA: Westinghouse Learning Press, 1971.

Fraenkel, Jack R. *Helping Students Think and Value: Strategies for Teaching the Social Studies.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall, 1973 (Especially Ch. 2, 5 and 7).

Fraser, Dorothy M., ed. *Social Studies Curriculum Development: Prospects and Problems.* 39th yearbook. Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1969.

Girod, Gerald R. *Writing and Assessing Attitudinal Objectives.* Columbus, OH: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co., 1973.

Green, John A. *Teacher-made Tests.* New York, NY: Harper and Row Publishers, 1963.

Gronland, Norman E. *Determining Accountability for Classroom Instruction.* New York, NY: Macmillan Publishing Co., Inc., 1974.

Gronland, Norman E. *Improving Marking and Reporting in Classroom Instruction.* New York, NY: Macmillan Publishing Co., Inc., 1974.

Hunkins, Francis P. *Questioning Strategies and Techniques.* Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1972.

Krathwohl, David R.; Bloom, Benjamin S.; and Masia, Bertram B. *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives: Affective Domain.* New York, NY: David McKay Company, Inc., 1964.

Kurfman, Dana, ed. *Teacher-Made Test Items in American History: Emphasis Junior High School.* Bulletin #40. Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1968.

Michaelis, John U. *Social Studies for Children in a Democracy: Recent Trends and Developments.* 5th edition. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1972 (Especially Ch. 16).

Morse, Horace T., and McCune, George H. *Selected Items for the Testing of Study Skills and Critical Thinking.* Bulletin #15, revised edition. Revised by Lester E. Brown and Ellen Cook. Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1971.

Thomas, J. Murray, and Brubaker, Dale L. *Decisions in Teaching Elementary Social Studies.* Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Publishing Co., Inc., 1971.

Vargas, Julie S. *Writing Worthwhile Behavioral Objectives.* New York, NY: Harper and Row Publishers, 1972.

Wood, Dorothy Adkins. *Test Construction: Development and Interpretation of Achievement Tests.* Columbus, OH: Charles E. Merrill Books, Inc., 1961.

See also Evaluation Section of this guide for further help.

FIELD TRIP RESOURCES FOR THE RESOURCEFUL TEACHER

Teachers of the social studies are constantly seeking additional resources to enrich their teaching of Indiana Studies.

The first place to inquire for help is the State Social Studies Coordinator, Indiana Department of Public Instruction, 120 W. Market Street, Indianapolis, IN 46204. Another excellent source of help is the Indiana State Museum administered by the Indiana Department of Natural Resources. Examples of the types of help they produce are the two George Rogers Clark Teaching Units dealing with the explorer's life and times. One unit was intended for elementary teachers and the second for secondary teachers and their students. The agency plans to place a copy of the units in the curriculum library of each school. It also provides brochures about state parks, landmarks and historic sites.

Another excellent source of materials is the office of the Indiana Department of Commerce, Room 336, State House, Indianapolis, IN 46204. The Department produced an interesting 130-page booklet entitled *Indiana: SceniCircle Drives* which presents 13 different tours of the state. Materials from this source are constantly changing and inquiry should be made regarding the latest materials available. Local state senators and representatives may also be able to help teachers obtain materials and add teachers to his/her mailing list for legislative bulletins and analyses, which are issued periodically when the legislature is in session. When writing these sources, teachers should specifically identify the type of help they are seeking, never saying "just send me one of everything you have."

Indiana maintains 14 Indiana Interstate Tourist Information Centers which are open seven days a week, 8:30 a.m. to 6:45 p.m., during the summer tourist season. In addition, three mobile vans visit fairs, festivals and other attractions throughout the summer. These sites offer an excellent opportunity to obtain single copies of the most recent materials. Early planning may help teachers "liven up" a middle-of-the-winter series of lessions.

Other sources of materials are Chambers of Commerce located by contacting local Chambers for addresses in the specific area being studied. Another source of help may be *Polk's City Directory* and telephone directories. These sources can usually be located in the nearest college or university library. Many times local telephone company representatives can provide loan copies of the telephone directories of the area being studied. They must be given sufficient time to obtain these, however, so advance planning is again necessary for success. The "Yellow Pages" can also aid the quest for data and help.

Sometimes local school districts have identified many local community resources and persons by compiling them in a *Community Resources Handbook.* Another rich source of help is the *Yellow Pages of Learning Resources* published by MIT Press. The directory includes sources, all conveniently classified.

Another source of resource persons are foreign exchange programs through colleges, 4-H clubs or Youth for Understanding programs. Many church groups also sponsor foreign students, and returned missionaries are excellent sources of firsthand knowledge about foreign lands.

When inviting a resource person into the classroom, explain in advance the instructional objectives and time limits and preview any slide or film presentation. An excellent way to control the time limit is to invite the resource person to make his/her presentation immediately before a scheduled rest period, lunch period or dismissal.

Sometimes local service clubs and industries have presentations they are willing to share with classes, either as field trips or as in-class programs.

Local residents or other teachers may have traveled abroad and have interesting slides and observations that they will share with classes. Such trips are often reported in the society pages of the local newspaper.

A walking tour through a pioneer cemetery is a rich source of local history and can be a valuable motivational tool. This may be coupled with a genealogy column from the local newspaper to make an interesting instructional unit.

It is a good idea to keep a resources notebook of persons and places that may be of immediate or future value for the instructional program. Include evaluative notes following the use of any resources.

None of these resources should be used alone. A combination of pamphlets, movies, slide presentations, resource persons, textbooks, field trips and other resources is desirable. It is the teacher's responsibility to identify available resources, make initial contact, handle arrangements and make sure instructional resources are used to the greatest benefit of pupils.

FREE AND INEXPENSIVE TEACHING MATERIALS

The following catalogs are not free, but are very useful in obtaining free and inexpensive materials.

Aubrey, Ruth H. *Selected Free Materials for Classroom Teachers.* Palo Alto, CA: Fearon Publications.

Miller, Bruce. *Free and Inexpensive Teaching Aids.* Box 369, Riverside, CA

Peabody College for Teachers. *Free and Inexpensive Learning Materials.* Nashville, TN: Peabody College.

Scholastic Magazines. *Where To Find It Guide.* New York, NY: Scholastic Magazines, Inc. (This appears annually in the autumn issue of *Scholastic* magazines.)

Suttles, Patricia. *Educator's Guide to Free Social Studies Materials.* Randolph, WI: Educators Progress Service.

Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402. (Many GPO publications pertain to social studies. Request to be put on their mailing list to receive notice of their publications as they are developed.)

GAMES AND SIMULATIONS

Boocock, Sarane, and Schild, E.O., eds. *Simulation: Games in Learning.* Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publishers, 1968.

Carlson, Elliott. *A New Approach to Problem Solving: Learning Through Games.* Washington, D.C.: Public Affairs Press, 1969.

Chapman, Katherine. *Guidelines for Using a Social Simulation Game.* Boulder, CO: Social Science Education Consortium, Inc., 1974.

Chapman, Katherine; Davis, James E.; and Meier, Andrea. *Simulation/Games in the Social Studies: What Do We Know?* Boulder, CO: Social Science Education Consortium, Inc., 1974.

Charles, Cheryl L., and Stadsklev, Ronald. *Learning With Games: An Analysis of Social Studies Educational Games and Simulation.* Boulder, CO: Social Science Education Consortium, Inc., 1972.

Davis, James E., and Chapman, Katherine. *The Use of Simulation/Games in the Social Studies Classroom.* Boulder, CO: Social Science Education Consortium, Inc., 1975.

Inbar, Michael, and Stoll, Clarice Stasz. *Simulation Gaming in Social Science.* New York, NY: The Free Press, 1971.

Livingston, Samuel A., and Stoll, Clarice Stasz. *Simulation Games: An Introduction for the Social Studies Teacher.* New York, NY: The Free Press (A Division of Macmillan Publishing Co., Inc.), 1973.

GENERAL ELEMENTARY SCHOOL SOCIAL STUDIES

Jarolimek, John. *Social Studies in Elementary Education.* 4th edition. New York, NY: Macmillan Publishing Co., Inc., 1971.

Keller, Clair W. *Involving Students in the New Social Studies.* Boston, MA: Little, Brown and Co, 1974.

Kenworthy, Leonard S. *Social Studies for the Seventies.* Lexington, MA: Xerox College Publishing, 1973.

Lee, John R. *Teaching Social Studies in the Elementary School.* New York, NY: Macmillan Publishing Co., Inc., 1974.

Ord, John E. *Elementary School Social Studies for Today's Children.* New York, NY: Harper and Row Publishers, 1972.

Ploghoft, Milton E., and Shuster, Albert H. *Social Science Education in the Elementary School.* Columbus, OH: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co., 1971.

Preston, Ralph C., and Herman, Wayne L. Jr. *Teaching Social Studies in the Elementary School.* 4th edition. New York, NY: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1974.

Rooze, Gene E., and Foerster, Leona M. *Teaching Elementary Social Studies: A New Perspective.* Columbus, OH: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co., 1972.

Roselle, Daniel. *A Parent's Guide to the Social Studies.* Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1974.

Skeel, Dorothy J. *The Challenge of Teaching Social Studies in the Elementary School.* 2nd edition. Pacific Palisades, CA: Goodyear Publishing Co., Inc., 1974.

Thomas, R. Murray, and Brubaker, Dale L. *Decisions in Teaching Elementary Social Studies.* Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Publishing Co., Inc., 1971.

Thomas, R. Murray, Brubaker, Dale L. *Teaching Elementary Social Studies: Readings.* Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Publishing Co., Inc., 1972.

Nesbitt, William A. *Simulation Games for the Social Studies Classroom.* New York, NY: Foreign Policy Association, 1971.

Zuckerman, David W., and Horn, Robert E. *The Guide to Simulation/Games for Education and Training.* Cambridge, MA: Information Resources, 1973.

INDIANA HISTORY

In addition to the material listed under Field Trips and State and National Professional Organizations, this section focuses on particularly excellent free or inexpensive resources available concerning the state's history and development.

Indiana Historical Society

Indiana Historical Bureau

Indiana Junior Historical Society

All housed at:
Indiana State Library
140 North Senate Ave.
Indianapolis, IN 46204

The most extensive collection of material on Indiana history housed anywhere in the state. All teachers of Indiana history should plan a minimum of one full day on site inquiring about the extensive materials available to teachers.

Department of Natural Resources
202 North Alabama Street
Indianapolis, IN 46204

The best source for information concerning all state parks, memorials and museums. Inquire at the Indiana State Museum desk in the main lobby and browse in the book store. Ask for flyers on parks and memorials in your area of the state.

State Chamber of Commerce
2nd Floor
Board of Trade Building
Indianapolis, IN 46204

Inquire for their publication "Here Is Your Indiana Government", updated every four years and the best source of information on state and local government structure. Also look in the yellow pages of local phone directories for city or regional Chambers of Commerce.

Indiana Department of Commerce
International Trade Division and
Tourism Development Division
State House
Indianapolis, IN 46204

In addition to the publication "Scenicircle Tours", the Department will provide current brochures of information on world trade and points of interest around Indiana.

United States Department of the Interior
Geological Survey
National Parks and Monuments
1819 North Meridian
Indianapolis, IN 46204

A good source of information about detailed maps of counties in Indiana. Also ask about national historical sites and monuments.

Oil companies are also a source of state maps. On these you can locate points of interest and write for local information.

INDIVIDUALIZING INSTRUCTION AND WORKING WITH GROUPS

Gronland, Norman E. *Individualizing Classroom Instruction.* New York, NY: Macmillan Publishing Co., Inc., 1974.

Howes, Virgil M. *Individualizing Instruction in Reading and Social Studies.* New York, NY: Macmillan Publishing Co., Inc., 1970.

Howes, Virgil M. *Informal Teaching in the Open Classroom.* New York, NY: Macmillan Publishing Co., Inc., 1974.

Schmuck, Richard A., and Schmuck, Patricia A. *Group Processes in the Classroom.* Dubuque, IA: Wm. C. Brown Company Publishers, 1971.

Waskin, Yvonne, and Parrish, Louise. *Teacher-Pupil Planning.* New York, NY: Pitman Publishing Corporation, 1967.

INQUIRY AND QUESTIONING

Beyer, Barry K. *Inquiry in the Social Studies Classroom: A Strategy for Teaching.* Columbus, OH: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co., 1971.

Carin, Arthur A., and Sund, Robert B. *Developing Questioning Techniques: A Self-Concept Approach.* Columbus, OH: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co., 1971.

Fair, Jean, and Shaftel, Fannie R., eds. *Effective Thinking in the Social Studies,* 37th yearbook. Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1967.

Hudgins, Bryce B. *Problem Solving in the Classroom.* New York, NY: Macmillan Publishing Co., Inc., 1966.

Hunkins, Francis P. *Questioning Strategies and Techniques.* Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1972.

Sanders, Norris M. *Classroom Questions: What Kinds?* New York, NY: Harper and Row Publishers, 1966.

Schreiber, Joan E., and Morgan, Jack C. *How to Ask Questions.* How To Do It Series, No. 24. Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1969.

Shulman, Lee S., and Keislar, Evan R. *Learning by Discovery.* Chicago, IL: Rand McNally and Co, 1966.

NEWSLETTERS

Title	Address	Annotation	Price
Alcohol and Drug Notes	National Clearinghouse for Alcohol Information, P.O. Box 2345, Rockville, MD 20852.	Monthly HEW newsletter lists media and describes programs.	Free
Focus on Asian Studies	Service Center for Teachers of Asian Studies Association for Asian Studies, 29 W. Woodruff Ave., Columbus, OH 43210	Devoted to increasing attention to Asian Studies in public schools; published quarterly.	$1.00 annually
Focus on the Americas	Center for the Teaching of the Americas, Immaculata College, Immaculata, PA 19345	4-page publication contains articles and reviews.	$1.00
Global Dimensions	Center for Teaching International Relations, Graduate School of International Studies, University of Denver, Denver, CO 80210	Contains teaching materials on race and ethnicity in international relations. These materials suggest a number of ways teachers and students can explore race as an international problem.	Free
InterCulture News	InterCulture Associates, Inc., Box 277, Thompson, CT 06277	Teaching ideas and materials in this newsletter seek to promote intercultural understanding.	Free
Keeping Up	Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education, 855 Broadway, Boulder, CO 80302.	A monthly bulletin contains brief articles, summarized research and recently published materials.	Free
Law in American Society	Law in American Society, 33 N. LaSalle St., Chicago, IL 60602	Published four times a year containing background articles, classroom strategies and instructional materials to help teachers develop the concepts of law	Free

News and Notes on the Social Sciences	Fred Risinger, Coordinator for School Social Studies, Social Studies Development Center, Indiana University, 513 North Park, Bloomington, IN 47401	Newsletter includes reviews, articles and activities of wider interest than the immediate area of Indiana.	Free; out-of-state schools limited to one subscription
Perspective	Association of Teachers of Latin American Studies (ATLAS), P.O. Box 73, Lefferts Station, Brooklyn, NY 11225	Published quarterly, newsletter promotes Teaching about Latin America and contains articles and media reviews.	$4.50
Simulation Gaming News	*Simulation Gaming News*, Box 8899, Stanford University, Stanford, CA 94305.	Bi-monthly newspaper on the latest ideas in simulation gaming, which includes several complete games in every issue.	$4.00
Social Science Education Con-Consortium Newsletter	SSEC, Social Science Building, 855 Broadway, Boulder, CO 80302	"Newsy" items about what is going on in social studies/social science education across the country. Published four times a year.	Single copies free.
The Social Studies Professional	National Council for the Social Studies, 2030 M St., N.W., Suite 406, Washington, D.C. 20036	Monthly publication of the National Council lists meetings and conferences of general interest and provides information on current council activities.	Free with membership.

OBJECTIVES

Burns, Richard W. *New Approaches to Behavioral Objectives.* Dubuque, IA: Wm. C. Brown Company Publishers, 1972.

Girod, Gerald R. *Writing and Assessing Attitudinal Objectives.* Columbus, OH: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co., 1973.

Mager, Robert F. *Preparing Instructional Objectives.* Palo Alto, CA: Fearon Publishers, 1962.

Popham, W. James, and Baker, Eva L. *Establishing Instructional Goals: Planning an Instructional Sequence.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1970.

Vargas, Julie S. *Writing Worthwhile Behavioral Objectives.* New York, NY: Harper and Row Publishers, 1972.

ORGANIZATIONS AND PUBLICATIONS

African-American Institute (AAI)
School Services Division
833 United Nations Plaza
New York, NY 10017

Works to further African development and to inform Americans about Africa. School Services Division works with teachers, school districts and national organizations producing low-cost materials to supplement those available commercially. AAI's materials include *Teaching African Geography from a Global Perspective* and *Mini-Modules for Teaching about Africa.* Resource packets, case studies, bibliographies, lesson plans and many other materials are available.

American Science and Engineering, Inc.
20 Overland Street
Boston, MA 02215

Viewed as expensive by most people, MATCH (Materials and Activities for Teachers and Children) kits provide intensive and exciting classroom activity in six selected areas.

MATCH units come in suitcase-type containers and include models, artifacts, booklets, films, records and a multiplicity of other learning aids. Teachers viewing the MATCH catalog will probably obtain many ideas for developing kits of their own.

American Universities Field Staff, Inc.
535 Fifth Avenue
New York, NY
and
3 Lebanon Street
Hanover, NH 03755

AUFS, a nonprofit, membership corporation of a group of American educational institutions, employs a full-time staff of foreign area specialists devoted to the enlargement of American understanding of significant developments in foreign societies. A list of its publications includes Field-staff Reports, collections of readings, research studies, bibliographies.

Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith
315 Lexington Avenue
New York, NY 10016

Founded in 1913 to check discrimination against Jews, it now acts to secure justice and fair treatment for all Americans. Operates through a national office in New York City and 28 regional offices. Publishes the *ADL Bulletin* and many works on contemporary problems.

Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, NEA
1701 K Street, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20036

Ask for list of ASCD publications. Two of particular interest to social studies teachers are: *Elementary School Social Studies: A Guide for Current Research* and *Guidelines for Elementary Social Studies.*

Center for Global Perspectives
218 East 18th Street
New York, NY 10003

Collects and evaluates materials developed by social studies projects, organizations, teachers, school districts and other sources. Makes available to educators information on materials dealing with the international dimensions of war, peace, conflict and change. Identifies areas of needed work, develops its own curriculum materials and encourages others to do so. Publications: *Intercom* is published 3 to 5 times each year for the teacher who understands the need to introduce global problems into the classroom, but doesn't have time to research and prepare original curriculum. Each issue is complete and can be used for up to 10 classroom periods, depending on student and teacher interest. Recent subjects: China; Development; Southern Africa, Population. *War/Peace Report* is a bi-monthly journal of fact and opinion looking toward a world of peace with justice. Provides current information and background for teachers at all levels. Among other Center publications are *Global Dimensions in U.S. Education,* a series of four studies covering the "state of the art" in the secondary school, the elementary school, the university and the community.

The Fideler Co.
31 Ottawa, N.W.
Grand Rapids, MI 49502

Resource books on many topics provide indepth study of an area. Cassettes and project booklets also available. Publishes *Informative Classroom Pictures* which are helpful as visual aids

Foreign Policy Association
345 East 46th Street
New York, NY 10017

A nonpartisan organization, FPA offers teacher resources and suggestions for classroom activities on major foreign policy issues. The materials (grade levels 9-12) are open-ended and can be used in a flexible manner to meet the needs of the teacher and students. Some of the materials are adaptable for elementary grades.

Grossman Publishers
Division of Viking Press, Inc.
625 Madison Avenue
New York, NY 10022

The *Jackdaws* (kits) consist of visual and source documents on selected topics. Use similes, journals and various other materials. Teachers will find *Jackdaws* helpful for display purposes, as part of learning centers and for use in student research.

Hale, E.M. and Co.
Eau Claire, WI 54701

Special lists of publications are available, e.g. *Minority Groups: A Special Intercultural Book List.* Books are

grouped according to topics, e.g., *Indians of Today and Yesterday*, and have grade level designations given in the catalog.

Houghton Mifflin Co.
1900 South Batavia Avenue
Geneva, IL 60134

Two volumes will be of special interest to the social studies teacher: *Verdict on America: Readings from Textbooks of Other Countries* and *As Others See Us: International Views of American History*. Written for use at the senior high level, the translated readings, cartoons and photographs show what people in other parts of the world learn about American history, contemporary life and issues that will be of interest to students.

The Joint Council on Economic Education
1212 Avenue of the Americas
New York, NY 10036

An independent, nonprofit, nonpartisan, educational organization incorportated to encourage, improve, coordinate and service the economic education movement. "Checklist" contains a list of JCEE publications. Materials at the elementary level include resource units, student activity books and teacher's guides that are social studies supplements.

League of Women Voters
of the United States
1730 M Street, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20036

The purpose of the nonpartisan League of Women Voters of the United States is to promote political responsibility through informed and active participation of citizens in government. Publications useful to the classroom teacher are available at a nominal cost. Catalog is obtainable upon request.

Messner, Julian and
Simon and Schuster Juveniles
Divisions of Simon and Schuster, Inc.
1 West 39th Street
New York, NY 10018

Topical lists of books and reading lists of books and materials are available. One collection is *Books for the Middle Grades about American Racial and Ethnic Diversity and Other Lands and People.*

National Conference of Christians and Jews
43 West 57th Street
New York, NY 10019

Focus is on the development of better human relationships. For example, *Human Relations: Study Guides* is a human relations program designed for students at four levels: primary, intermediate, junior and senior high. Copies are free.

National Council for the Social Studies
1202 Sixteenth Street, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20036

Elementary teachers will find *Children's Books to Enrich the Social Studies for the Elementary Grades* particularly helpful in selecting books to supplement existing programs. The *How To Do It Series*, dealing with specific problems of classroom procedure, contains many illustrations and concrete suggestions on methodology. Publications relate to all areas of the social studies. A list is available.

National Education Association
Customer Service Section
1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20036

Although not all materials are applicable to the social studies area, some fine materials are. *NEA Edu-Pak on Sex Role Stereotyping* will be helpful to the teacher interested in improving the image of women in textbooks.

National Geographic Education Services
National Geographic Society
Post Office Box 1640
Washington, D.C. 20013

Catalog includes films, filmstrips, books, maps and records. *National Geographic School Bulletin*, written for students 8 through 14 years of age, is published throughout the school year. Each of the 30 yearly issues is helpful in enriching the social studies.

Social Issues Resources Series, Inc. (SIRS)
1200 Quince Orchard Blvd.
Gaithersburg, MD 20760

The Social Issues Resources Series is a research service for educators and students based on the assumption that the vital problems of our society should be studied as a central element of the curriculum. They research articles from newspapers, magazines, government publications and journals which are well suited for classroom and library use, relate each article to the whole in a given topical area, so that differ-

	ing points of view are presented. Write for a current brochure of their publications.
Social Science Education Consortium Publications 855 Broadway Boulder, CO 80302	The SSEC provides information and services to school personnel from elementary through college levels. Catalog offers the *Data Book*, an analysis of materials from the nationally funded projects, innovative textbooks, games and simulations. It also has over 200 analyses which give information about costs, content, teaching, learning strategies and evaluation. This reference is a must to assist in the identification and selection of new materials for entire courses or for supplementing existing courses. SSEC also publishes a newsletter and catalog of publications.
Social Studies School Service 10,000 Culver Boulevard Culver City, CA 90230	Catalog includes maps, games, posters, records, cassettes, photo-aids, visual-aids, paperbacks, simulations, transparencies, duplicating books and multi-media programs.
U.S. Committee for UNICEF 331 E. 38th Street 331 E. 38th Street New York, NY 10016	Informative brochures and booklets for a variety of age groups are available. Books and games for children focus on the lives of children in faraway lands. Teacher's kits and materials can be used to interpret UNICEF for the children. Visual aids include wall sheets, photo sets, films, filmstrips and slides.
Xerox Education Publications Education Center Columbus, OH 43216	Catalog of social studies unit books for grades 6-12 is available. Although most of the material will be too difficult for elementary children to read, it is fine resource material for building the teacher's background and for adapting for use with students.

There are many other fine sources of materials, and the teacher is encouraged to make his/her own additions to the above lists.

STATE AND NATIONAL PROFESSIONAL GROUPS

Besides the colleagues in your own school system, where can you find professional teachers who are also interested in talking about social studies? What organization represents you as a social studies teacher at the local, state or national level? Where can you get help with your problems in teaching social studies?

The social studies teacher should know about the wide range of professional organizations that stand ready to help. Some of these organizations primarily serve teachers in the State of Indiana. Others are national in scope. In the pages that follow they are organized as either state or national organizations.

Professionalism, however, is a two-way street. Although it is important to have access to sources of new ideas, it is just as important to identify and contribute to a professional organization. It is in this setting that one becomes a functioning professional. It is in a professional organization that one can share his or her own ideas, can help the organization be responsive to its goal, and it is here that one fully realizes his or her professional potential.

The National Council for the Social Studies is the major organization for social studies educators. Joining the national organization, as well as the Indiana Council for the Social Studies (its affiliate) and one of the local councils, represents a major way to enhance your own professional growth.

State Organizations

(NOTE: Unless otherwise indicated, wrtie to the address given for information.)

INDIANA COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES
513 North Park
Bloomington, Indiana 47401

Promotes continual professional development of social studies teachers K-12 through meetings and publications. Publications include the *Social Studies Quarterly* (journal) and the *Periodic Newsletter.*

For information write to: Fred Risinger, Executive Director
Indiana Council for the Social Studies
Social Studies Development Center
Indiana University
Bloomington, IN 47401

In addition there are local councils:

1. South Central Council for the Social Studies — Columbus, IN
2. Central Council for the Social Studies — Indianapolis, IN
3. Fort Wayne Council for the Social Studies — Fort Wayne, IN
4. Evansville Council for the Social Studies — Evansville, IN
5. Gary Council for the Social Studies — Gary, IN

For information about these councils contact Fred Risinger.

INDIANA DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION
Jane W. Lowrie, Social Studies Consultant
Division of Curriculum
State Department of Public Instruction
120 West Market Street, 10th Floor
Indianapolis, IN 46204

Provides social studies consulting services to local school districts and social studies departments across the state. Assists with school district curriculum guides, interpretation of state laws and regulations and state textbook adoption policies.

DIVISION OF INNOVATIVE AND EXEMPLARY EDUCATION
Indiana Department of Public Instruction
120 West Market Street, 10th Floor
Indianapolis, IN 46204

Is designed to encourage school districts to develop imaginative solutions to problems in all phases of elementary and secondary education.

In essence it supplies schools and teachers with needed "seed money" to begin new programs and evaluates their impact on student learning.

Joe Wright
Environmental Education Consultant
Division of Curriculum
State Department of Public Instruction
120 West Market Street
Indianapolis, IN 46204

Assists local districts with the development of programs in economic education. The *Environmental Education Guide* and the *Whole Earth Design Publication* are available through this office.

INDIANA COUNCIL OF ECONOMIC EDUCATION
c/o Peter V. Harrington, Director
465 Krannert Building
Purdue University
West Lafayette, IN 47907

Holds inservice workshops for teachers that focus on the infusion of economic education into the curriculum. Operates six regional centers across the state. Publications include a periodic newsletter.

INDIANA PROJECT FOR LAW-FOCUSED EDUCATION
615 North Alabama Street, Room 111
Indianapolis, IN 46204

Affiliated with the Law in American Society Foundation, its emphasis is on leadership training and social studies curriculum development. Is establishing a statewide network of regional centers for law-focused education to enhance understanding and appreciation of the American legal system. Each year a three-week summer institute is held for teachers in Chicago. Has also developed a series of textbook materials on law-focused education. Of special interest is the journal *Law in American Society*.

INDIANA GEOGRAPHIC EDUCATION ASSOCIATION
c/o William Brookes
Department of Geography
Indiana State University
Terre Haute, IN 47809

Promotes and seeks to enhance the quality of classroom teaching in geography. Presents programs at meetings of the Indiana Council for the Social Studies. In addition, meetings of members are held where teaching ideas are exchanged.

Publishes a periodic newsletter for its members. Current membership fee is $3.00.

For information write to: Tom Martinson
Department of Geography and Geology
Ball State University
Muncie, IN 46306

CONSERVATION-OUTDOOR EDUCATION ASSOCIATION OF INDIANA, INC.
c/o Douglas Waldman, Treasurer
Homestead Junior-Senior High School
4310 Homestead Road
Fort Wayne, IN 46804

Holds workshops for teachers in environmental education. Has worked with the State Environmental Education Consultant to develop curriculum guides in this area.

MID-AMERICA PROGRAM FOR GLOBAL PERSPECTIVES IN EDUCATION
c/o James W. Becker, Director
Social Studies Development Center
513 North Park
Bloomington, IN 47401

Promotes global education at the pre-collegiate levels in Indiana, Kentucky, Ohio, Michigan and Illinois.

Publications include listings of individuals, programs and agencies in participating states. Also bibliographies and directories of materials and resources are published. A *Global Education Handbook* with eight lessons is also available.

SOCIAL STUDIES DEVELOPMENT CENTER
c/o Howard Mehlinger
513 North Park
Bloomington, IN 47401

Facilitates citizenship education through curriculum development. Serves as a major linkage between universities and schools by holding conferences and workshops for teachers. In addition, includes the Mid-America Program for Global Perspectives in Education.

National Organizations

NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES
c/o Dr. Brian Larkin
2030 M Street, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20036

The major professional organization for social studies educators, it holds an annual meeting as well as regional meetings for social studies teachers at all levels. Its journal, *Social Education*, is its major publication. Also publishes curriculum guidelines, position statements and bulletins on timely topics in the field. Services include a field service program which facilitates the development of state and local councils and development of curriculum at the local level.

NATIONAL COUNCIL OF GEOGRAPHIC EDUCATION
Department of Geography
University of Houston
Houston, TX 70774

Promotes the background and learning of geography at all levels with special attention to elementary and secondary levels. Holds an annual meeting as well as state and regional meetings. Publishes resource materials that identify audiovisual resources and instructional activities. Its regular publication is the *Journal of Geography*. Also publishes the *Pacesetter Series* on significant topics in geographic education.

WORLD AFFAIRS COUNCIL OF PHILADELPHIA
c/o Margaret H. Lonzetta, Director
Student Activities Department
Third Floor Gallery
The John Wanamaker Store
13th and Market Streets
Philadelphia, PA 19107

Purpose is to stimulate student involvement in foreign policy formulation as well as prepare students for responsible roles as citizens and community leaders.

Publications include *INTERdependence Curriculum Aid* for secondary teacher use focusing on food and nutrition, peace and disarmament, oceans. Background information, sample questions, audiovisual aids and classroom activities are part of this publication.

POPULATION INSTITUTE
c/o Peter Cott, Executive Director
110 Maryland Avenue, N.E.
Washington, D.C. 20036

Promotes the infusion of population education into existing curricula. Publications include (1) content outlines that tie population with such subjects as world geography, U.S. history and biology; (2) "Population and Human Development: A Course Curriculum Including Lesson Plans, Activities and Bibliography"; (3) *Population Issues*, a bimonthly newsletter.

OVERSEAS DEVELOPMENT COUNCIL
c/o Jayne Miller Wood, Director
Public Education
1717 Massachusetts Avenue, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20036

Promotes understanding of problems faced by developing countries and the importance of these countries to the U.S. Publications include *Focusing on Global Poverty and Development: A Resource Book for Educators.*

INSTITUTE FOR WORLD ORDER
Betty A. Reardon, Director
School Program
1140 Avenue of the Americas
New York, NY 10036

Develops curriculum materials on human rights, especially problems of ethnic minorities and economic well-being as a world order value. Publications include *The Struggle for Human Rights, The Cold War and Beyond*, published by Random House. Films on population, quality of life and unpaid work of women are available.

JOINT COUNCIL ON ECONOMIC EDUCATION
1212 Avenue of the Americas
New York, NY 10036

Through its School Service Program, assists school districts in the development of improved economic education programs K-12. Over 300 school systems belong to the DEEP (Developing Economic Education Programs) network. Publications include a biannual newsletter of new ideas and innovations in economic education. Currently, a *Curriculum Framework* and *Resource Guide in Economic Education K-12* is under development.

THE CHINA COUNCIL OF THE ASIA SOCIETY
c/o Peggy Blumenthal, Program Associate
112 East 64th Street
New York, NY 10021

Promotes China education programs for local communities. Publications include *People's Republic of China: 1976 Press Briefing Materials* ($2.00).

CENTER FOR INTERNATIONAL PROGRAMS AND COMPARATIVE STUDIES
c/o Norman Abramowitz
New York State Education Department
99 Washington Avenue
Albany, NY 12230

Services teachers in New York State; however, its publications are generally available including publications in foreign area studies, pre-collegiate materials on South Asian Studies and war-peace studies.

CENTER FOR GLOBAL PERSPECTIVES
Larry Condon, Executive Director
218 East 18th Street
New York, NY 10003

A development, research and consulting agency which facilitates infusion of global perspectives throughout the K-12 curriculum.

Publications include *Intercom*, a quarterly for educators working with students in grades 9-12. Each issue can be used as a mini-unit or supplement for helping students understand and cope with global problems facing our interrelated world.

ASSOCIATION FOR CHILDHOOD EDUCATION INTERNATIONAL
Rebecca A. Mauzy, Associate Secretary
3615 Wisconsin Avenue, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20016

Promotes desirable programs for children from infancy through early adolescence.

Publications include (1) *Children and International Education;* (2) *Children and Intercultural Education;* (3) *Learning to Live as Neighbors;* (4) *Teaching for Social Values in Social Studies.*

THE ASIA SOCIETY
c/o Ms. Loretta Ryan
Educational Resources/Asian Literature Programs
112 East 64th Street
New York, NY 10021

Focuses on the improvement of instruction regarding Asia. Publications include (1) bibliographic essays, (2) translations from Asian literature for classroom use.

AMERICAN UNIVERSITIES FIELD STAFF
3 Lebanon Street
Hanover, NH 03755

Emphasis is humanizing and globalizing secondary school social science education. Has also developed a film and activities-based educational program entitled "Women Around the World."

AMERICAN FREEDOM FROM HUNGER FOUNDATION
Gerald E. Connolly, Executive Director
1625 Eye Street, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20006

Focuses on education regarding world hunger. Publications include a monthly bulletin, educational materials, an *Action Handbook* on world hunger and a bibliography.

AMERICAN FIELD SERVICE
c/o Curtis Weeden
International Scholarships
313 East 43rd Street
New York, NY 10017

Facilitates international student exchanges as a means of educational improvement. Their target population is secondary students. Publications include a *School Advisor's Handbook* (free) and *Global Village Conversation* (50 cents)

ALLIANCE FOR ENVIRONMENTAL EDUCATION
James L. Aldrich, Executive Director
1785 Massachusetts Avenue, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20036

Purpose is to promote effective environmental education programs. Publications focus on worldwide environmental issues for secondary school teachers. Alliance also produces and distributes a series of filmstrip sets for secondary students.

AFRICAN-AMERICAN INSTITUTE
c/o Evelyn Jones Rich
School Services Division
833 United Nations Plaza
New York, NY 10017

Seeks to improve the quality and quantity of instruction about Africa. Serves school districts, individual schools and teachers with publications including a variety of teachers' guides, an elementary packet, a secondary-college packet, resource packets and Mini-Modules. A publications list is available.

SKILL DEVELOPMENT

Carpenter, Helen McCracken, ed. *Skill Development in Social Studies.* 33rd yearbook. Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1963.

Chapin, June R., and Gross, Richard E. *Teaching Social Studies Skills.* Boston, MA: Little, Brown and Co., 1973.

Creamer, Marvin C., and others. *Teaching Study Skills.* Glassboro, NJ: The Curriculum Development Council for Southern New Jersey, Glassboro State College, 1965.

Harris, Ruby M. *The Rand McNally Handbook of Map and Globe Usage.* Chicago, IL: Rand McNally and Co., 1967.

Keith, Pauline A., and Karish, Paul J. *How to Teach Library Research Skills in Secondary School Social Studies.* How To Do It Series, No. 23. Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1963.

Kranyik, Robert, and Shankman, Florence V. *How to Teach Study Skills.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Teachers Practical Press (A Division of Prentice-Hall, Inc.), 1963.

Larkin, Myrtle S. *How To Use Oral Reports.* How To Do It Series, No. 10. Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1964.

Litchen, Ruth E. *How To Use Group Discussion.* How To Do It Series, No. 6. Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1965.

Shankman, Florence V., and Kranyik, Robert. *How To Teach Reference and Research Skills.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Teachers Practical Press (A Division of Prentice-Hall, Inc.), 1964.

Whipple, Gertrude. *How To Introduce Maps and Globes: Grades One Through Six.* How To Do It Series, No. 15. Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1967.

SOCIAL PARTICIPATION

United Community Services. *Directory for Young Volunteers.* Detroit, MI: United Community Services.

Russell Sage Foundation. *How to Study Your Community.* New York, NY: Russell Sage Foundation.

National Commission on Resources for Youth. *Forty Projects by Groups of Kids.* New York, NY: National Commission on Resources for Youth.

Ibid. *New Roles for Youth in the School and the Community.* New York, NY: Citation Press, 1974.

Ibid. *Resources for Youth,* newsletter. National Commission on Resources for Youth. Published quarterly.

Ibid. *Youth Into Adult,* Nine Selected Youth Participation Programs. New York, NY: National Commission on Resources for Youth.

National Council for the Social Studies. *How to Utilize Community Resources.* How To Do It Series, No. 13. Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies.

National Association of Secondary School Principals. *NASSP Bulletin,* Vol. 58, #385. Reston, VA: November, 1974.

There are many programs currently emphasizing social participation for students. Several organizations, such as the following, are supporting social participation programs, sometimes called Action-Learning.

National Commission on Resources for Youth
36 West 44th Street
New York, NY 10036

National Association of Secondary School Principals
1904 Association Drive
Reston, VA 22091

Center for Youth Development and Research
301 Walter Library
Minneapolis, MN 55455

Community Resources, Ltd.
P.O. Box 174
Ann Arbor, MI 48108

ACTION
806 Connecticut Avenue, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20525

Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development
1701 K Street, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20006

National Council for the Social Studies
1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20036

TEACHING STRATEGIES

Banks, James A., and Clegg, Ambrose A., Jr. *Teaching Strategies for the Social Studies: Inquiry, Valuing, and Decision-Making.* Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., 1973.

Crowder, William W. *Persistent-Problems Approach to Elementary Social Studies.* Itasca, IL: F.E. Peacock Publishers, Inc., 1973.

Fraenkel, Jack R. *Helping Students Think and Value: Strategies for Teaching the Social Studies.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1973.

Joyce, Bruce R. *New Strategies for Social Education.* Chicago, IL: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1972.

Joyce, Bruce R., and Harotunian, Berj. *The Structure of Teaching.* Chicago, IL: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1967.

Joyce, Bruce, and Weil, Marsha. *Models of Teaching.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1972.

Massialas, Byron G., and Zevin, Jack. *Creative Encounters in the Classroom: Teaching Learning Through Discovery.* New York, NY: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1967.

Metcalf, Lawrence E., ed. *Values Education: Rationale, Strategies, and Procedures.* 41st yearbook. Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies. 1971.

Michaelis, John U., and Keach, Everett T., Jr. *Teaching Strategies for Elementary School Social Studies.* Itasca, IL: F.E. Peacock Publishers, Inc., 1972.

Ryan, Frank L. *Exemplars for the New Social Studies: Instructing in the Elementary School.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1971.

VALUES

Banks, James A., and Clegg, Ambrose, Jr. *Teaching Strategies for the Social Studies: Inquiry, Valuing, and Decision-Making.* Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., 1973.

Barr, Robert D., ed. *Values and Youth.* Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1971.

Bauer, Nancy W. *Value-Seeking in the Classroom: The Creative Conspiracy of Teacher and Curriculum,* Teacher's Notebook in Elementary Social Science, No. SS11. New York, NY: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc., 1970.

Brandwein, Paul F. *Notes on Teaching the Social Sciences: Concepts and Values.* New York, NY: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc., 1969.

Chesler, Mark, and Fox, Robert. *Role-Playing Methods in the Classroom.* Chicago, IL: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1966.

Dunfee, Maxine, and Crump, Claudia. *Teaching for Social Values in Social Studies.* Washington, D.C.: Association for Childhood Education International.

Fraenkel, Jack R. *Helping Students Think and Value: Strategies for Teaching the Social Studies.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1973.

Hawley, Robert C.; Simon, Sidney B.; and Britton, D.D. *Composition for Personal Growth: Values Clarification Through Writing.* New York, NY: Hart Publishing Co., Inc., 1973.

Metcalf, Lawrence E., ed. *Values Education: Rationale, Strategies, and Procedures,* 41st yearbook. Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1971.

Raths, Louis E.; Harmin, Merrill; and Simon, Sidney B. *Values and Teaching.* Columbus, OH: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co., 1966.

Shaftel, George, and Shaftel, Fannie. *Role-Playing for Social Values: Decision-Making in the Social Studies.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1967.

Shermis, S. Samuel. *Philisophic Foundations of Education.* New York, NY: Van Nostrand-Reinhold, 1967.

Simon, Sidney B.; Howe, Leland W.; and Kirschenbaum, Howard. *Values Clarification: A Handbook of Practical Strategies for Teachers and Students.* New York, NY: Hart Publishing Co., Inc., 1972.

WOMEN'S STUDIES

All of Us, Inc. 175 South Broad Street, Monmouth, OR 97361.

Canadian Women's Educational Press. 280 Bloor Street West, Suite 305, Toronto, Canada.

Everywoman Bookstore. 2083 Westwood Boulevard, Los Angeles, CA 90025. (New catalog every two months of non-sexist children's literature).

Feminist Book Mart. 162-11 Ninth Avenue, Whitestone, NY 11357. (A catalog of women's books and non-sexist children's books, Winter-Spring, 1973).

Jack Rabbit Press. 468 Willamette, Eugene, OR 97401.

Joyful World Press. 468 Belvedere Street, San Francisco, CA 94117.

Know, Inc. P.O. Box 10197, Pittsburgh, PA 15232.

Lollipop Power, Inc. P.O. Box 1171, Chapel Hill, NC 27514.

National Black Feminist Organization. 370 Lexington Avenue, Room 601, New York, NY 10017.

National Organization for Women. 641 Lexington Avenue, New York, NY 10022.

New Seed Press. 872 Colorado, Palo Alto, CA 94303.

Public Education Religion Studies Center. Wright State, Dayton, OH 45401.

Rainbow Institute. Box 13907, UCSB, Santa Barbara, CA 93107.

Sexism in Education. Emma Willard Task Force on Education, P.O. Box 14229, University Station, Minneapolis, MN 55414.

Third World Woman's Resource Center, 4224 University Way, N.E., Seattle, WA 98105.

Women Action Alliance. 370 Lexington Avenue, New York, NY 10017

Women's Press Collective. 5251 Broadway, Oakland, CA 94618.

SELECTED STUDENT RESOURCES

The student resources found in this guide have been selected as a starting point for the teacher who needs to supplement an existing social studies program. The intent is to supply information on just some of the materials which can be used to: (1) provide for individual differences; (2) supply varied content and different viewpoints; (3) zero in on particular disciplines; and (4) offer a variety of learning activities and resources. Most of the materials: are in paperback form; provide for the development of knowledge and understanding and skills; contain visuals; suggest activities for average, more mature and less mature learners, and contain teacher's guides. This list is by no means conclusive, and the teacher will want to search for other materials as they are developed and as the teacher becomes aware of a need for them.

SOCIAL STUDIES MATERIALS FOR THE KINDERGARTEN

The following materials, intended for beginners and for pre-textbook readiness buliding in the primary grades, are indicative of the commercial materials that are available.

The Earth, Home of People — Big Book. Silver Burdett Co.

Loose-leaf bound to stay open for display, it contains 30 full-color visuals large enough to be seen by an entire class. Presents a world view of people — what people in communities around the world do to make the earth a liveable home for themselves, how culture and environment affect the ways in which people work, learn and play. Pupils then consider the earth itself — its form, composition, climates and continued process of change. The basic concepts stressed are *people* and the *earth.* A teacher's manual accompanies.

Schools, Families, Neighborhoods. Field Educational Publications.

Multi-media readiness program endeavors to help young children develop self-understanding and appreciate the roles and interaction of people in groups. Through inquiry questions and activities. Multi-media kit includes: (1) 95 study prints (24" x 17"), depicting people and their activities in school, families and neighborhoods around the world; (2) three filmstrips with accompanying records; (3) nine short strips; (4) four wall charts, and (5) the teacher's manual.

The Social Science Concepts and Values: Beginning Level Study Prints. Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc.

Series of 35 full-color study prints illustrates the physical and social environments of six basic culture groups — the major early contributors to the total cultural history of America. With the exception of the Indian photographs, there are six prints for each culture. The first three prints in each group are from the actual country or original place of the culture; the last three prints deal with the culture's influence and contribution in the United States. Study prints are used to promote the discussion and understanding of characteristics of various cultures. All prints have lesson plans printed on the reverse side in large type. Students learn how the environment of a people affects his culture and begin to understand how his own environment influences his way of life, culturally and physically.

Inquiring About Myself. Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc.

Varied classroom activities are included to help stimulate and strengthen a student's ability to formulate concepts. The nine concepts that serve as organizers for the program are: self, school, rules, change, family, groups, seasons, time and word. Materials include a *Planning Calendar* for the teacher and a *Databox* for the pupils. Read-To-Books, which are housed in the *Databox*, feature simple stories to be read to the pupils by the teacher.

Readiness Program: Anuk's Family of Bali. Addison-Wesley Publishing Co.

The student readiness materials consist of 18 color study prints to develop the theme of interdependence among family members. Key concepts are: differences, interdependence, modification and societal control. The following are areas explored: man's efforts to master environment; man's ways of inducting young into society; man's rules and sanctions for members of society, and man's ways of expressing beliefs and emotions.

Families. The Fideler Co.

Utilizing a chartbook of 27 large (17½" x 23") discussion pictures, this program emphasizes development of the following ideas: love and faith; learning from each other; many kinds of work; using tools; doing your part; loyalty, and responsibility. Teacher's guide contains complete lessons for use with the pictures.

Investigating Man's World Study Prints. Scott, Foresman and Co.

Consisting of 24 full-color study prints for use with five- and six-year-olds, this interdisciplinary program seeks to develop concepts such as change, culture, rules, wants and needs. Along with the study of the student's own family, the student is introduced to families in other lands. Attention is given to the development of values and behavior traits.

Learning About the World (first semester) and *Children In Other Lands* (second semester). Allyn and Bacon, Inc.

The child is introduced to the globe and to the people who live on the various parts of it. He begins to learn about cultural similarities and differences and to realize the need to understand and respect these differences. Introductory globe study acquaints the pupil with children in four countries of the world: Japan, Mexico, England and American Samoa. The child becomes aware that man's basic wants are always greater than existing resources and that he must use his skills and ingenuity to provide for himself. Teacher's Kit contains materials for bulletin board display or in making transparencies or duplicator masters. Teacher's guide is provided.

SOCIAL STUDIES MATERIALS FOR THE PRIMARY GRADES

Kindle. Scholastic Magazines, Inc.

Self-awareness sound/filmstrip program for early childhood consists of visual essays to help the young child better understand himself and his social environment by showing children from different ethnic groups in situations familiar to the young: hoping, fearing, fantasizing, playing and exploring. The intent is to help the child develop basic social studies and language arts concepts in communication, strengthen the child's self-confidence, and help build a positive self-image. Encouragement is given to the child's spirit of inquiry and natural sense of wonder. The following units are included: *Kindle: Who Am I?* (The Concept of Self); *Kindle 2: How Do I Learn?* (The Concept of Learning); *Kindle 3: Getting Along* (The Concept of Relationships); *Kindle 4: Mixing In* (The Problem of Relating); and *Kindle 5: I Can Tell* (Nonverbal Communication). Each unit contains five full-color filmstrips, five 33⅓ rpm records or cassettes and a teaching guide.

Five Children and Five Families. Scholastic Magazines, Inc.

A program in cultural awareness for early childhood, this sound filmstrip program lets the students share a day in the lives of children and families from ten different cultural and geographical areas across America. Emphasis is on gaining appreciation and understanding of other cultures and backgrounds while developing basic social studies, language arts and guidance concepts. The two units, available in English and Bilingual (Spanish-English) editions, are: *Five Children* and *Five Families.* Each unit contains five full-color filmstrips and a teaching guide.

Interaction Study Prints. Rand McNally and Co.

Designed for inquiry teaching in social studies (kindergarten through grade 4), these can serve as a complete course or as a social studies supplement. Four sets of paired study prints revolve around the general theme "Interactions of Man." Through pictures the program examines interactions of: *Man and Man; Man and His Environment; Man and His Resources;* and *Man and His Past.* The program relies on verbal and visual catalysts, rather than reading ability, and a great majority of the prints involve children. It is worldwide and multi-societal in coverage. The pairing of two pictures around each concept allows the learner to view the concept in two perspectives and encourages comparisons. A third dimension is added by the personal experiences the child brings to the pictures. Reinforcement of each interactions theme is available through other pictures within the set and in other sets of the series. Instructional guidelines appear on the reverse side of the picture. A separate teacher's guide repeats the teaching suggestions and offers enrichment activities for each pair as well as general instructions on inquiry teaching and study prints.

Multi-Media Kits. Society for Visual Education, Inc.

The catalog must be consulted to learn of the many subjects available. The kits include filmstrips,, word games, study prints, slides and records to cover a specific topic in depth. Selected topics: "Family and Community Life," "Human Values," "American Indians," "Children of Many Lands," "Homes and Family Living." Components of a kit can also be purchased separately.

SOCIAL STUDIES MATERIALS FOR THE MIDDLE AND UPPER GRADES

Modular Learning Units, Regional Studies. Scott, Foresman and Co.

Six booklets, each concentrating on one discipline, involve pupils in the study of individual states, regions of states and states in other nations. Individual titles are: *Anthropology, Economics, Geography, History, Political Science* and *Sociology.*

Modular Learning Units, United States Studies. Scott, Foresman and Co.

Six booklets, each focusing on one discipline, involve pupils in a study of their own nation. At the end of each booklet, they apply what they have learned to the investigation of a foreign nation. Individual titles are: *Anthropology, Geography, Political Science, Economics, History* and *Sociology.*

Modular Learning Units, Inter-American Studies. Scott, Foresman and Co.

Three booklets involve pupils in an investigation of neighbors of the United States. Individual titles are: *Canada, Mexico* and *Latin America.*

Resource Books for Asia, Africa, Europe, Latin America, Canada and the United States. The Fideler Co.

Each set of the six series above includes books that have large size pictures, easy-to-read material for the intermediate grades, Discovery Sheets and Folders (duplicator masters with questions and projects) and a social studies skills manual in each book for level 5-up. Discovery Cassettes help individual students, small groups and the entire class in their study of a region. Teacher's guides are included. *The Asian Cultures Series* includes: *Japan, China, India* and *Southeast Asia. World Culture Series* is made up of *British Isles, Germany, France, Soviet Union, India, Southeast Asia, Africa* and *South America. The World Cultures Series* books can also be purchased in combined editions: *British Isles and Germany, France and Soviet Union, India and Southeast Asia,* and *Africa and South America. The Man in the United States Series* includes the following books: *The Northeast, The South, Midwest and Great Plains,* and *The West.* Large-size Picture Banks are available on *The West, Midwest and Great Plains,* and *The Northeast. The American History and Culture Series* includes books on *Colonial America, Great Explorers, Great Americans* and *Transportation. Man in Canada and Latin America Series* is made up of: *American Neighbors, Canada, Caribbean Lands, South America* and *Mexico.*

Inquiring About Freedom: Civil Rights and Individual Responsibility. The Fideler Co.

Intended for grades 6-9, this book comes with Discovery Cassettes to be used by the students in their study and a teacher's edition of the book.

Xerox Social Studies Unit Books. Xerox Education Publications.

Xerox Unit Books, which cover a wide variety of subjects and are intended for grades 6-12, provide indepth coverage of a topic at a very low cost (50 cents each). Selected subjects are: *Our Hispanic-American*

Heritage, intended for grades 6-9, and *The Ecology Playbook: You Can't Change One Thing*, for grades 6-9. (More information on the Xerox Unit Books will be found under the listing of resource materials for the more mature student in this curriculum guide.)

Area Studies. Allyn and Bacon, Inc.

Four Area Studies expose students to major regions and countries of the world and encourage application of conceptual analysis to a specific region or country. Titles are: *The Indian Subcontinent, Lands of the Middle East, Lands of Latin America* and *Lands of Africa.*

Trailmarks of Liberty Series. Houghton Mifflin Co.

Three books make up this series: *Law in a New Land* (Grades 4-5); *Great Cases of the Supreme Court* (Grades 7-8), and *Vital Issues of the Consititution* (Grades 11-12). These paperbacks are inquiry-oriented, strikingly illustrated, and written in simple, nontechnical, exciting language. Texts stress issues rather than rules to show our legal system in actual dynamic, and sometimes controversial action. At each grade level, case studies dig increasingly deeper into our society's great conflicts: religious liberty, freedom of speech, separation of powers. Close-to-home concerns of today's students are also investigated: mass demonstrations, wiretapping, Watergate break-ins, "stop and frisk" laws, military courts, voting rights, desegregation, equal opportunity for women, fair trial and juvenile rights. Guides for each level offer practical strategies for decisionmaking, sample lesson plans and bibliographies.

Firebird Library. Scholastic Magazines, Inc.

Series of history and biography books of minority Americans for grades 5 to 8. Books are written in short, narrative style that is easy to read, each illustrated with authentic visual material of the period and designed for independent reading as well as for classroom use in social studies. Selected titles: *The Defenders* (biographies of three Indian leaders); *Give Me Liberty: Black Valor in the American Revolution; The Faces of Freedom; The Fighting Congressmen; Voices from the Southwest; It Started in Montgomery; A Picture History of the Civil Rights Movement;* and *Justice Denied: A History of the Japanese in the United States. The Firebird Library* contains 16 books (one paperback on each title). A Teacher's Library Guide contains an overview of the library, classroom discussion questions, a synopsis of each book and bibliographies. A set of 16 Student Activity Cards contains questions and activities designed to alert students to the most important facts and concepts in each volume, involve the student, and help him to relate historical events to today. The Firebird Poster/Timeline is a large poster illustrating all significant minority group members featured in the library.

In America Series. Benific Press.

Hardback books survey the background, immigration and American history of different national, social and ethnic groups that make up our population. Emphasis is placed on the contributions each nationality has made to American life. Extensively illustrated with photographs. Easy reading level.

SOCIAL STUDIES MATERIALS FOR MORE MATURE STUDENTS IN THE MIDDLE AND UPPER GRADES

The following materials are included, although most were prepared for use in grades 7-12. The materials could serve as a challenge for the student who is advanced for his grade level, could be recorded on tape for students to listen to, or could be used by the teacher to build his/her own background. The content relates to topics usually covered in the upper elementary grades. Many primary sources are included in most of these books — excerpts from letters, diaries, autobiographies, news stories, eyewitness accounts, magazine articles and interviews. Fictional excerpts, songs and poems, pictures and cartoons, maps and charts, and case studies are also a part.

Promise of America. Scott, Foresman and Co.

The title of the five paperbacks, written at a seventh to eighth grade reading level, are: *The Starting Line* (Pre-1800, the units are: The American Colonies; The American Revolution; The Constitution); *Struggling for the Dream* (1800-1860, the units are: Moving Westward; Improving Society; Slavery); *Breaking and Building* (1860-1900, the units are: The Civil War; Reconstruction; Industrialization); *Sidewalks, Gunboats, and Ballyhoo* (1890-1930, the units are: The Growth of the City; Foreign Affairs; The 1920's); *An Unfinished Story* (1930-present, the units are: The Great Depression; World War II and the Cold War; What Next?). Related documentary films are available for purchase or rental.

People of the World. Scott, Foresman and Co.

Each of six paperbacks is divided into seven chapters: The Setting, Workers, Family and Education, Religion, Government, Conflict and Close-ups of People. Individual titles are: *Mexico, Japan, India, Kenya, France* and *Soviet Union.* Readability level ranges from fifth to seventh grade. Related cultural studies films are available on the same topics.

People and the City. Scott, Foresman and Co.

Each 48-page paperback in this series explores one aspect of city living. Individual titles are: *Speaking Up, Buyers Beware, Housing Conflicts, Moving In, Crime and Safety, Getting Jobs, You've Been Arrested, Can Earth Survive?, Who Needs School?, Getting Around, Struggle for Changes* and *Who Governs?*

Learning About Peoples and Cultures. McDougal, Littell and Co.

Through illustrations, short readings, poetry and essays, the student takes a look at perception, mind sets, ethnocentrism, communication and language. Emphasis is on the ways in which we see others and the changing patterns of perceiving.

Xerox Social Studies Unit Books. Xerox Educational Publications.

The Xerox Unit Books, which cover a wide variety of subjects and are intended for grades 6-12, provide an indepth coverage of a topic at a very low cost (50 cents each). Selected subjects of books intended for grades 7-12 are: *Colonial Defiance: The Boston Tea Party, The Constitution: One Nation or Thirteen, Pioneers and Planters: Black Beginnings in America, Land of Immigrants, Propaganda and Public Opinion, Mexican Americans Today, China: Emerging Asian Giant, Japan, Changing Latin America, The Soviet Union, Congress in Action, American Indians Today, Black in America, Civilizations of Africa, Our Polluted World, The Conservation Story* and *Ecology: Man Explores Life.*

The Human Adventure. Allyn and Bacon, Inc.

This series consists of four mini-texts and four teacher's guides encompassing episodes of world history chosen to illuminate the history of civilization, both Western and Non-Western. Special attention is paid to the role of controlling ideas in cultural differentiation and to the phenomenon of the rise and fall of varied forms of civilization. The series is interdisciplinary. Individual titles are: *Ancient Civilizations, Four World Views, Greek and Roman Civilization* and *Medieval Civilizations.*

The Human Adventure. Allyn and Bacon, Inc.

Another series, bearing the same title as above, also consists of four mini-texts and four teacher's guides. Individual titles are: *The Age of Western Expansion, New World and Eurasian Cultures, The Challenge of Change* and *Interaction of Cultures.*

Afro-Asian Regional Studies. Allyn and Bacon, Inc.

Interdisciplinary studies of culture regions in the Afro-Asian world promote cultural understanding of the peoples in each region. The titles are: *East Asia — China, Japan, Korea; Southeast Asia,* and *Africa South of the Sahara.*

World Cultures in Perspective Series. Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co.

Interdisciplinary series focuses on four major civilizations of the world and seeks to help students gain an awareness of the relationships of the great civilizations to one another and an understanding of the universality of the human condition in all cultures, past and present. Written in narrative style, the books contain maps, photographs, excerpts from original sources, discussion questions and additional readings for an indepth study. Titles are: *The Ancient Near East, The Middle East: Crossroads of Civilization, Ancient Greece and Rome, The Golden Age of China and Japan, China and Japan in the Modern World* and *Latin America: The Emerging Lands.*

Life in America Series. Houghton Mifflin Co.

Each book includes historical introductions, a variety of material drawn from diaries, letters, documents, speeches and newspaper accounts, and a bibliography and questions. Titles of books are: *Business Enterprise in American Life, Education in American Life, Cities in American Life, The Workingman in American Life, Immigrants in American Life, Youth in American Life, Religion in American Life, Women in American Life* and *Negroes in American Life.*

Justice in America Series. Houghton Mifflin Co.

Series uses the law as an instrument to probe civic problems, to give students new understanding of local governmental structure, our legal system in action, and their own rights and responsibilities. Inquiry is the method. The key tools of learning are 100 legal case studies analyzed in a broad multidisciplinary context. There is a wealth of practical study aids and classroom activities. Dramatic photographs, provocative questions, simple legal forms, and mock trials involve students as decision makers. Individual titles are: *Police and the Law, Crimes and Justice, Law and the City, Landlord and Tenant, Law and the Consumer, Youth and the Law, Poverty and Welfare* and *Liberty, Equality, and the Law, '75.*

Supershopper: A Guide to Spending and Saving. McDougal, Littell and Co.

Listed for grade 7 and above, *Supershopper* is written specifically for young people in a lively, readable style with no questions and exercises to label it a textbook. Purpose is to help students become more knowledgeable consumers. It contains hundreds of hints to assist students in getting, saving and spending their money wisely. Teacher's aids are included in a separate manual.

SOCIAL STUDIES MATERIALS FOR THE LESS MATURE LEARNER IN THE INTERMEDIATE GRADES

After diagnosing a learner's difficulty, the teacher will want to obtain materials that will be of help in addressing the problem. The materials that follow are suggestive of what might be used.

Explorers and Discoverers. Allyn and Bacon, Inc.

Written for use at the first-grade level, the three sets of paperbacks on this topic include the same explorers that are frequently in the fifth-grade program. Without a grade designation, and with a format and readability level appropriate for a less mature learner in the upper elementary grades, these books can be used to provide for individual differences.

American Communities. Allyn and Bacon, Inc.

Written for the second-grade level of the Allyn and Bacon social studies program, the six paperback booklets can be used profitably with less mature learners engaged in a study of the United States.

Basic Skills Series. Science Research Associates, Inc.

Series develops reading and interpretive skills necessary for understanding maps, charts and other visual aids and strengthens reporting skills necessary to gather and communicate written data. Three kits are: *Graph and Picture Study Skills Kit; Map and Globe Skills Kit;* and *Organizing and Reporting Skills Kit.* A similar kit, *Researchlab* develops basic research skills. Materials in each of these kits, intended for grades 4-8, are arranged in levels of increasing difficulty, so the student can start at his own level and progress through remaining exercises at his own pace.

Man in His World Series. Bobbs-Merrill Co., Inc.

Paperback series, with titles such as, *Indians of the Plains, China* and *Eskimo Journey Through Time,* has a very interesting format and lots of diagrams, pictures and activities that will probably appeal to the child who lacks motivation for study.

Man and His World. Noble and Noble Publishers, Inc.

Individual paperback units are a part of the Noble and Noble program, but can be purchased separately. Twenty-eight titles are available, e.g., *The Vikings and the Incas, Egypt: Land of the Nile, The Rise of the Cities, Africa* and *Culture.* By selecting titles related to topics studied in the existing social studies program, the teacher is able to add a greater variety of material.

The Social Learning Curriculum. Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co.

Curriculum designed for children with developmental disabilities, culturally deprived children, educable mentally retarded children, learning disabled children, and other children with special learning needs. Components of the boxed *Social Learning Curriculum* kit are: 10 phase books, a set of 72 stimulus pictures, 10 spirit duplicating books, Assessment of Phase Knowledge Record Charts (one of each phase), overhead projection transparencies, supplementary books in physical education, mathematics, and science, teacher's

guide, and a Scope-Sequence Chart. Emphasis of this teaching program is on the development of social skills, with the goal to evolve mature individuals who can think critically and act independently so they are socially and occupationally competent. Social competence includes the ability to make relevant decisions and the ability to exhibit appropriate behavior in areas ranging from self-management of personal affairs (such as finances, leisure time, communication, travel, health) to establishing and maintaining oneself independently.

MULTI-MEDIA MATERIALS FOR THE ELEMENTARY GRADES

Many multi-media materials are available. Some are included elsewhere in this guide under other headings. The following are listed to indicate still more the breadth of materials available.

The Scholastic World Cultures Program. Scholastic Magazines, Inc.

A people-centered world geography/area studies program designed for the junior high grades. People of seven different regions of the world speak to the students through full-color sound filmstrips, heavily illustrated narrative texts, posters and classroom activities. Students meet dozens of real people and discover from their words what they think about themselves, their neighbors, their leaders, their country and their world. The person-to-person involvement is an attempt to discard stereotypes and to gain an insight into other cultures. Available for each region: (1) Texts that are easy to read and inexpensive. Each includes photo essays on The Land, The People, The Economy, and The Culture with area, regional and historical maps. (2) Teaching Guides for each text that include discussion guides, role-playing ideas, workshop activities, and concept and attitude suggestions. Teaching Guides are free with orders of 5 or more copies of any text. (3) Sound filmstrips that are available with record or cassette sound tracks and deal with each region and the diversity of each culture. (4) Student Activity Laboratories that provide 32 duplicating and transparency masters for classroom activity. Map and chart-reading exercises, short-answer and essay questions, and comprehension and reading materials are a part. (5) Poster Sets that are used in classroom activities and as bulletin board materials to stimulate interest and activity. The seven regions are: *Latin America, The Indian Subcontinent, The Middle East, China, Tropical and Southern Africa, The Soviet Union and Eastern Europe, Southeast Asia.* It is possible to purchase the complete program, only the set of material on a particular region, or only certain components of a set on a region.

Scholastic Dimension Program. Scholastic Magazines, Inc.

Two of the units in this program, designed for grades 4, 5 and 6, are: *Government Bicentennial* and *Family Values.* In this program students role-play, research, debate and interview as they learn to use information from a variety of curriculum areas to explore the Dimension topic. Each unit contains a full-color sound filmstrip, one or more educational games, 32 mini-lessons on 16 skill/activity cards, and one additional multi-media extra such as transparencies, ditto masters or a game. The *Government Bicentennial* takes up the creation of the U.S. Government — the men, the ideas and the debates behind its formation in 1776. Students re-enact with games the advances and processes that have tested the Constitution in the past and present and explore various constitutional interpretations and the effects on our government today. *Family Values* provides a look at the changes taking place in today's family — liberated roles, different attitudes, changing values — and the effect of all these on the family unit. Games and activities encourage students to talk and write about common family problems (getting along with brothers and sisters, household chores, etc.) and the importance of different responsibilities in making the family unit work.

American Adventure. Scholastic Magazines, Inc.

Program consists of four *American Adventure* paperbacks written with a vocabulary and sentence structure at a 4th-6th grade level. Each paperback is supported by a variety of classroom enrichment and activity materials: one History Laboratory volume of ditto masters for skills and reading reinforcement; a 10" LP Dramatic Recordings to document classroom learning with songs, speeches and stories; a classroom poster set to provoke thought and discussion; and a Teaching Guide for each of the paperbacks. Individual units: *A Nation Conceived and Dedicated, Old Hate — New Hope, Between Two Wars,* and *Yesterday, Today, Tomorrow.*

Multi-Media Kits. Society for Visual Education, Inc.

Subject matter of the kits covers all grade levels; the catalog must be consulted to learn exactly what is available. At the primary level, the topics deal primarily with home and family life and community living. At the intermediate grade level typical kits are: *American Pioneers, Afro-American Studies, Negro History, Exploration and Settlement of America, Ancient Greece and Rome, M xico, Asia* and *South America.* The kits include filmstrips, filmstrip word games, study prints, slides and records to cover a specific topic in depth. Components of a kit can be purchased separately.

Picture-Story Study Prints. Society for Visual Education, Inc.

Picture-Study prints are reproduced from photographs and are 18" x 13" in size. On the back of each print the teacher gets lesson planning ideas: suggested topics to talk about, things to do, questions to discuss and a vocabulary list. Many of the SVE study prints are available with accompanying records. Sets available include: *Indians of the United States and Canada, Children Around the World, Mexico, Central America and the West Indies Today, South America Today, Community Helpers* and *Urban Life.*

Social Studies Records/Cassettes. Society for Visual Education, Inc.

Recordings correlate with social studies curriculum. A wide array of topics is available such as: *Pioneer Transportation* (28 folk songs are included on this one to help students in their study); *Living With Others; Development of Communication; Black Contributors to American Culture; The Black Man's Struggle; Great Men and Great Issues in American Democracy; Treasury of American Speeches, Ballads, and Documents; Decisions That Changed History; Social Issues and the "Now" Generation; You and the Law;* and *At Issue: The Quality of Life.*

Field Social Studies Media Kits. Field Educational Publications, Inc.

Each Field Media Kit emphasizes the interdisciplinary approach to the study of social studies concepts. Kits can be used to supplement other social studies books as well as with texts published by Field. Kits have been developed to accomodate students with widely varying ability and maturity levels. Teacher's manual contains professional resource material and aids in daily lesson planning. No specific grade level identification is given by Field, but *School, Families, and Neighbors* is for early childhood and primary education; this includes 95 full-color photographic posters, three filmstrips and records, nine shortstrips, four wallcharts and a teacher's manual. The rest of the kits vary somewhat in the components included, but there is a combination of the following: sound filmstrips, full-color display prints, recordings and display maps. Titles: *People, Places, Products; Towns and Cities; Regions Around the World; The American Adventure; The United States and Canada; The Human Adventure; The Story of Latin America; Quest for Liberty; Rise of the City;* and *Perspectives in United States History.*

BFA Educational Media. A division of CBS, Inc.

Among the instructional materials produced by BFA are: captioned filmstrips, multi-media kits, sound filmstrips, study prints, super 8 silent film loops and tape cassettes. Some titles are: *City Problems: Alternatives* (Elementary-Junior High sound filmstrips series); *Economics of the City* (Elementary-Junior High sound filmstrip series); *The Stone Age* (Elementary-Junior High-Secondary sound filmstrip series); *The International Airport* (study prints — Elementary and Junior High); *Inquiry Series; Living in the Rainforest* (Super 8 Silent Film Loops — Elementary and Junior High series); *Databox: Fort Bragg* (Elementary-Junior High multi-media kit); *Japan Series* (Elementary Super 8 silent film loops); and sound filmstrips for the Elementary-Junior High levels, such as: *Mexico's Indian Heritage, Four Families of Kenya,* and *Nigeria: What You'd See There.*

World Landmark Enrichment Records. Scholastic Magazines, Inc.

Series dramatizes the lives and accomplishments of some of the best-known figures in world history. A full cast of professional actors, exciting sound effects and authentic songs of the historical period vividly portray great events that changed the world. World Landmark records are based on Landmark Books, published by Random House, Inc. A free teaching guide comes with each Enrichment Record. Titles are available, such as: *Napoleon and the Battle of Waterloo/The Marquis De Lafayette* and *Sun Yat-Sen, The Man Who Changed China/Queen Victoria.*

American Document Enrichment Records. Scholastic Magazines, Inc.

These include the important speeches and writings that have shaped American history. Each record includes quotes from the document, preceded by a discussion of what the American people were saying and what their leaders in Washington were thinking as events of the time began to unfold. Appropriate music and sound effects are used, and each presentation concludes with a review of national and international developments which followed as a result of the document. Titles, such as: *Sherman Anti-Trust Act/Theodore Roosevelt's The New Nationalism; The Monroe Doctrine/F.D. Roosevelt's Four Freedoms Speech.* Teacher's guides are furnished.

American Landmark Enrichment Records. Scholastic Magazines, Inc.

This series brings to life great men and unforgettable events in American history. Dramatizations, with sound effects and authentic music of each period, seek to give students a broader understanding of the forces

that helped America grow. Titles, such as: *Building the First Transcontinental Railroad; The Wright Brothers; The California Gold Rush/The Pony Express; Ben Franklin of Old Philadelphia/Lincoln and Douglas: Years of Decision.* Teacher's guides are provided.

SELECTED SOCIAL PARTICIPATION MATERIALS FOR CLASSROOM USE

Social Science Laboratory Units. Science Research Associates, Inc.

Program involves students directly in a study of dynamics of human relations. They read, listen to and role play samples of behavioral interaction, discuss inferences about what happened, then inquire into values. Value inquiry helps pupils understand their own behavior and that of people whose behavior is different from theirs. Unit One introduces pupils to some of the tools and methods used by social scientists to investigate human behavior. Each of the other six units presents a related area of social psychology for the age group: *Understanding Differences between People, Friendly and Unfriendly Behavior, Growing Up, Group Dynamics, Decision-making by Individuals and Groups, Influence and Social Power.* Suggested uses for social studies, grades 4-6. Unit One is a prerequisite for the other six units, which can be used in any order. All seven units can be taught in one year, or one or more units can be incorporated into the social studies curriculum at grades 4, 5 and 6. Components of the program: *Social Science Resource Book,* seven Project Books, five 33⅓ rpm records, a Teacher's Guide, and a copy of the *Teacher's Role in Social Science Investigation.*

Social Studies Involvement Program. Science Research Associates, Inc.

Three independent kits — *You and Your Family, You and Your Community* and *You and Your World* — are designed to provide basic social studies concepts in visual form. Each kit maximizes student involvement by encouraging verbal responses to a series of colorful, sequenced illustrations. Highly structured, easy-to-follow directions for presenting the visual material are provided, making daily teacher preparation minimal. A teacher's resource book provides teaching flexibility by presenting additional activities related to social studies and other subject areas. The Student Workshop for each kit contains verbal and nonverbal material, making the program suitable for both the reader and the student with reading difficulties. The kit is suitable as a supplement to basal social studies programs for grades K-6. It is excellent for slow readers and for students with deficiencies in English language and different cultural backgrounds. Components of the program: three kits, each containing 20 social studies concept boards; one student workbook; one lesson presentation book, and one teacher's resource book.

Man, Society, and the World. Scott, Foresman and Co.

This is a multi-media set intended to teach a sense of involvement in, and commitment to, improving society. The student learns about current social problems and defines his own potential role in finding solutions. The set includes: four color filmstrips, two cassettes, 19 overhead transparencies, one teacher's guide and one transparency manual.

How Shall We Live. Scott, Foresman and Co.

The student learns about the challenges that will confront him in day-to-day living. The series encourages the student to reach his own conclusions, through discussion with others, about what are good, workable relationships and principles of behavior. Set includes five discussion guides and five color filmstrips with five records or cassettes. Filmstrip titles: *Leading and Following, Feelings About Others, Choosing, Giving and Taking Advice* and *The Way We Look at Things.*

SELECTED VALUES CLARIFICATION MATERIALS FOR CLASSROOM USE

Materials for values clarification are plentiful and represent a variety of media. Most allow for flexible use and are similar in approach. The following materials have been selected to illustrate the types of materials available.

A Probe Into Values. Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc.

Packaged in a box, each of these 40 individual investigations presents the child with a conflict in values within his own frame of reference. He is led to explore alternative solutions to the conflict, prompted to choose a solution and examine the consequences of his choice, and given an opportunity to re-evaluate his choice in light of his findings. There are no "right" answers to these value conflicts. No predetermined values are imposed. Values clarification is used. Written for elementary pupils.

Deciding for Myself: A Values Clarification Series, grades 6-12. Winston Press.

Values clarification series contains a teacher's guide and three sets of 10 participant booklets which explore value-oriented topics. Set A, *Clarifying My Values*, takes the participants through the values clarification process as originated by Raths, Harmin, and Simon in *Values and Teaching*. Set B, *My Everyday Choices*, explores everyday concerns through the values clarification process. Set C, *Where Do I Stand?*, examines through the values clarification process topics relevant to living in society.

Photo Study Card Discussion Kits. Greenhaven Press, Inc.

The five *Photo Study Cards* help students clarify their values through analyzing and comparing photos that present different and often conflicting values. The *Photo Study Cards* are titled: *Who Are You?, Who Would You Like To Be?, What Do You Value?, You and Authority*, and *You and Social Responsibility*. The cards, packaged in boxed kits, include approximately four to five weeks of discussion and value clarification activities. The front side of each card deals with affective behavior — clarifying values, feelings and attitudes. The back side deals with cognitive behavior and moral reasoning.

The Human Values Series. Steck-Vaughn Co.

The purpose of this series of teaching pictures and books is to enable students and teachers to communicate clearly about value relationships in human behavior. Using a framework of eight value categories, students consider and evaluate the human actions portrayed in the stories of the series. The illustrated stories seek to depict characters and situations with which students can readily identify. An open-ended format is used. The series begins with a set of ten 19" x 24" full-color teaching pictures. The pictures, accompanied by read-aloud stories from the teacher's manual, introduce the values in the framework to children and prepare them for thinking about the value relationships in the stories of the books that follow. Materials extend through grade 6.

Exploring Moral Values. (WASP) Schloat Productions, Inc.

Set of silent filmstrips, developed by Louis Raths, utilizes the values clarification process presented in Raths' book, *Values and Teaching*. Set consists of 15 filmstrips containing 44 problematic situations for student use in exploring moral values. The four topics explored are honesty, authority, personal values and prejudice. Filmstrips 1-3 on prejudice include, for example, *Moving In, The Crippled Girl* and *Dressing Up*. Filmstrips 4-7 on personal values include *The Little Brother, The Poor Girl* and *The Lawn*. Filmstrips 8-11 on authority include *Crossing the Street, You're Out* and *Mind Your Older Sister*. Examples of filmstrips 12-15 on honesty are *The Dollar Bill* and *Candy Store*. One phono disc comes with the set and serves as an introduction to the filmstrips.

First Things: Values. Guidance Associates.

Set of filmstrips includes the following titles: *But It Isn't Yours, That's Not Fair!, The Trouble with the Truth, You Promised*, and *What Do You Do About Rules?* Each filmstrip presents two or more moral dilemmas planned to stimulate discussion of the basic concepts: truth, fairness, promises, property rights and rules. Detailed discussion guides for the filmstrips and an inservice training unit called *A Strategy for Teaching Values* provide assistance for the teacher.

Clubhouse Boat; Trick or Treat; Newspaper Drive. Churchill Films.

Cut-off films were developed by George and Fannie Shaftel, authors of *Role-Playing for Social Values*. Through discussion and role playing, students make trial decisions, confront the consequences of their decisions and analyze the values underlying their behavior. By discussing the solutions to the dilemmas presented in the films, the classroom group is stimulated to choose between a social value and a personal interest, between loyalty and honesty, between winning dishonestly and losing honorably, between concern for a friend and protection of oneself, and between fairness to another and capitulation to group pressure.

SELECTED REFERENCES ON EDUCATIONAL INNOVATION

Benne, Warren G.; Benn, Kenneth D.; and Chin, Robert, eds. *The Planning of Change*. 2nd ed. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1969.

An excellent collection of papers by leading authorities on the process of change. Brings together some of the best current conceptualizations of various aspects of the change process and the application of theories of social and personal dynamics. Divided into four parts covering the history, elements, dynamics, and values and goals of planned change. Considerable emphasis on organizational change and "laboratory" (sensitivity or T-group) training.

Brickell, Henry M. *Organizing New York State for Educational Change.* Albany, NY: State University of New York, State Education Department, 1961.

A study of the dynamics of instructional change in the elementary and secondary schools of New York State, with recommendations for improved organization. Presents a "theory-into-practice" model for educational change which interrelates the processes of program design, evaluation through field studies, and dissemination through demonstration and re-education.

Carlson, Richard O. *Adoption of Educational Innovation.* Eugene, OR: University of Oregon. The Center for the Advanced Study of Educational Administration, 1965.

Reports on various phases of the diffusion of six educational innovations. It is based on research involving school administrators. Factors which are related to the adoption of innovations are dealt with in some detail and generous use is made of tables. Social structure is related to both the communication about and rates of adoption of innovations. Characteristics of innovations are related to the rates of their adoption.

Carlson, Richard O., et. al. *Change Processes in the Public Schools.* Eugene, OR: University of Oregon. The Center for the Advanced Study of Educational Administration, 1965.

A research-oriented set of five conference papers includes chapters on barriers to change in education and on the characteristics of innovators. Chapter by Miles contains an excellent section on organizational characteristics which are somewhat unique to schools.

Eidell, Terry L., and Kitchel, Joanne M., eds. *Knowledge Production and Utilization in Educational Administration.* Columbus, OH: University Council for Educational Administration, 1968.

An excellent set of conference papers. The Guba chapter discusses the various strategies and techniques available to change agents and builds a case for diffusion roles. The Havelock paper is a comprehensive look at the many types of diffusion roles which currently exist and discusses some of the problems inherent in each. The paper by Sieber is one of the best around on the organizational variables which influence the adoption of educational innovations. The papers hang together well and many change agents will want this book in their library.

Gross, Neal, et. al. *Implementing Organizational Innovations: A Sociological Analysis of Planned Educational Change.* New York: Basic Books, 1971.

One of the best case studies of the implementation of an educational innovation. Authors present an intensive analysis of the progress of the implementation program and relate the findings to theory. The research instruments used in this thorough and well-controlled investigation are presented in the appendix.

Havelock, Ronald G. *A Guide to Innovation in Education.* Ann Arbor, MI: Center for Research on Utilization of Scientific Knowledge. Institute for Social Research, University of Michigan, 1970.

Comprehensive guide outlines steps in the educational change process. Designed for educators who are attempting to introduce innovations into the school systems at all levels of education. Specific case studies are cited in the form of illustrative examples.

Havelock, Ronald G. *Planning for Innovation through Dissemination and Utilization of Knowledge.* Ann Arbor, MI: Center for Research on Utilization of Scientific Knowledge, Institute for Social Research, University of Michigan, 1969.

"This report provides a framework for understanding the processes of innovation, dissemination, and knowledge utilization, and it reviews the relevant literature in education and other fields of practice within this framework." Detailed coverage of various models of the diffusion process, strategies of diffusion and research findings concerning individual, interpersonal, group and organizational factors relevant to planned change.

Lawler, Marcella, ed. *Strategies for Planned Curricular Innovation.* New York: Teachers College Press, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1970.

Proceedings of a conference held at Teachers College in the fall of 1966. Papers deal with the many difficult problems faced by persons attempting to introduce innovations into the schools. Authors suggest various guidelines that can be employed to ease the process of change in the educational environment.

Leeper, Robert R., ed. *Strategy for Curriculum Change.* Washington, D.C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1965.
Contains the papers and principal remarks given at the First ASCD Seminar on Strategy for Curriculum Change. Includes papers by Kimball Wiles, Ronald Lippitt, Herbert Lionbarger, and Ralph Kombrough. Most are technical analyses strategies from an organizational viewpoint. Some case material is included as

well as a summary of major issues.

Lippitt, Ronald; Watson, Jeane; and Westley, Bruce. *The Dynamics of Planned Change: A Comparative Study of Principles and Techniques.* New York: Harcourt Brace and Co., Inc., 1958.

Deals with the principles and techniques used by various professional agents concerned with change. Valuable reading for the practitioner interested in the process of change and in the various roles of the change agent.

Mahan, James H.; Gill, Jean; and others. *How to Get New Programs Into Elementary Schools.* 5 vols. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Educational Technology Publications, 1972.

An extremely useful series of booklets for the practitioner, based on firsthand experiences of the Eastern Regional Institute for Education (ERIE) staff. The five parts of the series, each bound separately, are: No. 1: *How to Install a New Curriculum,* by James M. Mahan and F. Jean Gill; No. 2: *Administrator's Plan Book for Curriculum Change,* by F. Jean Gill and Harold Harty; No. 3: *How to Select a New Curriculum,* by Robert F. Bickel and F. Jean Gill; No. 4: *How to Use Data to Make Curriculum Installation Decisions,* by Marcia M. Renker, et. al.; No. 5: *How to Develop a Pupil-Assessment System for a New Curriculum,* by Marcia M. Renker and Steven J. Bush.

Miles, Matthew B., ed. *Innovation in Education.* New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1964.

A valuable anthology containing papers by a number of persons who have worked in the area of educational change. In the first part, nine case studies are presented, and each is analyzed in terms of the factors responsible for the success or failure of the innovative attempt. The second part deals with research and theory and educational innovation, and the third deals with the American educational system as a setting for change. The final chapter provides a valuable synthesis of the book's contents.

Morphet, Edgar L., and Ryan, Charles O., eds. *Planning and Effecting Needed Changes in Education.* New York: Citation Press, 1967.

A collection of papers dealing with the process of planning educational change.

Rogers, Everett M. *Communication of Innovations: A Cross-Cultural Approach.* New York: The Free Press, 1971.

Revised edition of Rogers' *Diffusion of Innovations.* Represents a multidisciplinary approach, drawing upon the theories and research findings from communications, social psychology, sociology, organizational behavior and other fields. Contains 103 generalizations about innovation diffusion, based on a synthesis of more than 1,500 publications. Provides a picture of how innovations are diffused within social systems, characteristics of innovators and early adopters, types of adoption decisions, the role of opinion leaders, etc.

Schmuck, Richard, and Miles, Mattew, eds. *Organization Development in Schools.* Palo Alto, CA: National Press Books, 1971.

A good introductory overview of organizational development in schools.

Smith, Louis H., and Keith, Pat. *Anatomy of Educational Innovation.* New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1971.

A case study of the first year of an "open space" school.

Watson, Goodwin, ed. *Change in School Systems.* Washington, D.C.: National Training Laboratories, National Education Association, 1967.

Though more scholarly than practitioner-oriented, this book will be of considerable use to the latter. Those interested in developing change agent roles will find the chapter by Lippitt on the socialization process and by Jung on the change agent role within the school to be of particular relevance. Each chapter concludes with a bibliography though no index is available.

Woods, Thomas E. *The Administration of Educational Innovation.* Eugene, OR: Bureau of Educational Research, School of Education, University of Oregon, 1967.

Describes the process of planned change from the vantage point of the school superintendent. Although presented in a simple, comprehensible style, it contains a detailed description of the change process. Concludes with a series of summary statements which can serve as a framework for planning change.

Concepts

Flow Charts

The following material consists of some clarifying models of the social science disciplines. They are intended to help teachers visualize the interrelatedness of ideas within a discipline and to represent the total structure of thinking in each discipline.

The material is excerpted from the elementary school social studies series, *Our Working World*, *New Paths in Social Science Curriculum Design* and *Organizing a Curriculum Around Social Science Concepts*, both written by Lawrence Senesh, a professor of economics at the University of Colorado.

The charts in this section elaborate on the ideas presented in the clarifying models. A separate chart is provided for each discipline.